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DE BOW'S REVIEW

OF THE

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN STATES.

DEVOTED TO

COMMERCE, AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS,
STATISTICS, GENERAL LITERATURE, &C.

"Commerce is King."

EDITED BY J. D. B. DE BOW,
UNIVERSITY OF LOUISIANA.

Vol. XII.—NEW SERIES, Vol. V.

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The following list, made up for us on the last day of the session of Congress by a friend, is incomplete, and does not include many names which were given.

"The undersigned, Members of Congress, take great pleasure in recommending De Bow's Review to the People of the Southern and Western States, a work which has been edited and published in New-Orleans for the last *five* years, by J. D. B. De Bow, and which embraces in a monthly series of numbers, the most complete and reliable facts and statistics relative to the progress and development of all the great branches of industry in the States, whether in *Commerce*, *Agriculture*, *Manufactures*, or *Internal Improvement;* as also the growth and progress of *Population* and *Improvement;* the question of *Slavery in all its bearings, social and political*, *Slave Products, &c.* The published volumes of this work constitute an invaluable library of *Southern and Western Statistics*, and have already become a standard authority."

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New-Orleans Chamber of Commerce, May 14, 1846.

Be it Resolved, That this Chamber highly approves of the Commercial Review, a periodical established in this city by J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., and recommends it to the patronage of the commercial community.

Charles Briggs, Secretary. SAMUEL J. PETERS, President.

Charleston Mercantile Library Society, Feb. 1847.

In exercise of the power given them by the Constitution, the Board have unanimously elected as Honorary Members, Freeman Hunt and J. D. B. De Bow, Esqrs. These gentlemen are entitled to wide and honorable distinction. The former in originating the Merchants' Magazine, the first successful attempt of its kind in the United States, sustained and conducted as it has been by marked ability. The latter, one of our own citizens, in the laudable spirit which prompted the establishment of the Commercial Review of the South and West, and the masterly pen which he has wielded in elucidation of the commercial interests of the South, have richly earned our most grateful acknowledgments.

A. O. ANDREWS, President.

Charleston Chamber of Commerce, Oct. 26, 1846.

On motion of Col. James Gadsden, Resolved, That the Commercial Review, edited in New-Orleans by our fellow citizen, J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., is a work well calculated to exercise a most favorable influence on the commercial interests of the South and West.

Resolved, That the zeal and talent with which it has been commenced, and the able articles which have appeared in its pages (as foreshadowing on the future the promises of the past,) strongly recommend the Review to the patronage of the Southern community, and that the Chamber of Commerce of Charleston feel gratified at the opportunity of presenting to the public this testimony in its favor.

W. B. HERIOT, Secretary.

Cincinnati Mercantile Library Society, Jan. 1849.

Resolved, As the sense of the Mercantile Library Association of Cincinnati, that De Bow's Commercial Review of the South and West supplies an important desideratum in the mercantile literature of this great western valley; that the comprehensive views and practical attainments of Professor De Bow are special qualifications for conducting such a periodical, and that this Association very cordially recommend the Commercial Review to general favor, and the special patronage of our mercantile community.

St. Louis Mercantile Association.

Resolved. That the Board of Directors appreciate the efforts of J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., of New-Orleans, in collecting statistical information of great value to the South and West; that we regard his journal as valuable, and cordially recommend it to the patronage of merchants, etc.

GEO. R. ROBINSON, Corresponding Secretary.

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Yours truly,
A. Fowler.

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VOL. XII., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. II., No. 1.

ART. I.—MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

THE GREAT IMPORTANCE OF IMPROVING THE MISSISSIPPI RIVER.

The Mississippi River, taken in connection with the Missouri, is the longest known river on the earth, and, with its tributaries, waters the greatest extent of territory. Yet large as is the number of towns and cities at present upon its banks, whose commercial interests are directly connected with its waters, it is not a hundredth part of what it is one day destined to become; and vast as is the amount of produce from the interior which now descends, and of imports that ascends that river, they are really inconsiderable, when compared with the most moderate estimate of the amount that must, at some future day, find a way to their respective markets, along its channel. Being the outlet of an immense valley, and the traveling and commercial thoroughfare of a population, increasing beyond all ordinary calculation, whatever affects the permanency of its channel, or general character as a navigable stream, must excite an interest in the minds of all who reside sufficiently near its waters to have their property affected by its overflows, or a change in its channel. These overflows have been of such a character for the last few years, as to spread consternation among those whose agricultural interests lie exposed to their ravages; while the changes evidently taking place in the lower channel of the river, have begun to excite alarm in those who see their business and real estates likely to be endangered by their continuance. The agricultural and commercial interests, immediately connected with the lower Mississippi, and liable to be affected by its changes, are too vast and important to the general prosperity of the whole country, to permit the necessity for its improvement to be much longer overlooked, or the improvement itself to be much longer deferred. People must be blind, indeed, to their interests, and to the consequences which already begin to stare them in the face, much longer to stand with folded arms, indifferent to the condition of a river, the yearly damages from which already amount to millions; and the time cannot be far distant, if want of foresight, or reckless indifference to consequences, continue to characterize the action of the legislature of Louisiana, when the river, breaking through its limits, and entirely changing its channel, will so affect present interests in that state as to bring total ruin to many, and leave others no longer possessing any interests capable of being protected by its improvement. Convinced as I am, that, when threatened dangers are overlooked, and all prevention neglected, these consequences become inevitable, I feel anxious that those, whose interests are so deeply involved in the subject, should be fully aroused to a sense of its importance and its danger, and induced to take it up in such a way as to insure the adoption of effective means to save themselves from ruin, and secure the permanent agricultural and commercial prosperity of Louisiana. With this view I now write. I see great danger before the people of that state, which science and experience tell me, if not met by counteracting remedies, is inevitable; and I cannot but feel astounded at the ignorance of some, the blindness of others, and the apathy of all. If I succeed in impressing upon their minds the necessity for action, and that action follows, I shall have accomplished a great good; if I fail, I shall, at least, have performed a duty, the neglect of which I should hold inexcusable.

The causes of the present condition of the river.—The condition of the lower Mississippi, its tendency to overflow, the frequent changes in its channel, and consequent threatened dangers, are the result of many causes, among which the following may be considered the principal:—the sinuosity of the bed, and the want of uniformity in its breadth. Flowing through an alluvial soil, which, no doubt, was originally formed from the materials brought down by the river itself, it is natural that its bed should be subject to continual change, where change is so easily effected, and where so many causes for change are permitted to exist. The slightest irregularity of the banks, or a deepening or shoaling of the bed on one side or the other, will cause the current to change its previous channel, and, in its efforts to continue the obtained motion in the same direction, and with the same velocity, it will abrade whichever bank interferes with that direction. Thus a curve is commenced, which, by degrees, becomes more extended by the continual abrasion of the concave bank, while the opposite convex side increases, at the same time, by deposits of material brought down—its advance keeping pace with the retreat of the other. The curve continues to progress until the river, in its circuitous sweep, returns towards the point where it commenced, leaving only a narrow isthmus at the neck of the bend, between the channel above and the one below, through which the water, during some high flood, at last finds its way, and opens for itself a new and more direct bed. This may be called a natural cut-off, being one of those efforts which the river, under the direction of Nature's laws, makes to regulate a defect in its channel. No person can look over the map of the

Mississippi River, without perceiving that it has frequently exercised this self-regulating power, and, we may say, always to advantage.

Different degrees of density in the soil composing the banks, presenting more or less resistance at different points, will (all other things being equal) have a tendency to produce a similar result; while the same cause existing in the soil of the bed, will cause such irregularity in the breadth and depth of the channel, as to vary materially the velocity of the current in different parts, and thus destroy everything like permanency and uniformity in the channel. The irregularity in the velocity, thus produced by the sinuosity of the bed, and by the want of uniformity in its breadth, also increases its tendency to overflow. For wherever the velocity is diminished, and the free discharge checked, there must be a greater head of water in time of flood, and, consequently, an increased danger of inundation.

Such are the evils consequent upon the present condition of the river: from the point where it enters the lower valley, to its mouth, it may almost be said to consist of a series of curves. The channel being irregular, the velocity is diminished, and its deposits increased; so that, while it apparently retains its usual depth in some parts, in others the bed is evidently rising, and the tendency to overflow, from want of a regular and free discharge of its waters, is increased. There is also a prospect that the present channel may so fill up, as to force the river to open a new passage for itself, and thereby cause the utter ruin of the great commercial interests which have grown up upon its banks.

There are other causes, also, operating upon the Mississippi, which have more or less contributed to its present condition, and continue to exercise an injurious influence upon its channel. Above New-Orleans there are three outlets: the Atchafalaya, Plaquemine, and La Fourche, through which no inconsiderable portion of the water of the main river finds its way in time of flood. These outlets, reaching the gulf by a shorter course, have a greater fall than the main river; and their channels not being so deep, the velocity of their currents is greater at the bottom, consequently they are experiencing a gradual but steadily progressive deepening of their beds and enlargement of their cross sections. On the other hand, the volume of water in the main river being diminished by the discharge through these outlets, loses velocity in proportion, while its deposits are increased. Thus the bed of the main river, below these outlets, must experience a gradual and progressive elevation, and while these outlets are clearing out, deepening and enlarging their channels, the Mississippi is gradually filling up. Indeed, such is the effect produced upon the channel of the main river by means of outlets, that, in the passes, where they are numerous, the depth of the channel decreases regularly from their upper entrance to their mouths. The reason is obvious:—The volume of water which enters the passes from above is diminished, and the breadth of the bed being extended towards the sea, the velocity is likewise diminished; and the current, no longer able to sweep into the gulf the sedimentary matter which it holds in suspension, or which it carries along at the bottom of the bed, nearly chokes up the mouths of the passes with it. Thus it is that, while there is a depth of over a hundred feet at New-Orleans, there is only twelve at the mouths of the passes; and thus it is, that the free discharge of the water through the mouths of these passes, being impeded, the surface of the river higher up is made to reach a greater elevation in time of a flood than it would if the mouths of the passes were deep enough to admit of a free discharge of water into the gulf. It requires a certain centralized volume of water to keep open the channel of a river, as it acquires a different cross section after the volume of water is diminished; because the river will fashion the size of its bed to the volume of water that remains.

The rapid increase of settlements along the tributaries of the Mississippi, the clearing of the woods, and the cultivation and draining of the lands, by affording a freer and more rapid passage for the waters of the valley into the streams, and carrying along a greater quantity of sedimentary matter, serve to increase still further the tendency to overflow in the main river. For though the quantity of rain that falls throughout the entire valley may not be greater than before, yet much of the impediments in the way of its discharge being removed, and the absorption and evaporation diminished by the increased rapidity of the discharge, the water, after heavy rains, makes its appearance in the main river more speedily, and more simultaneously, and it consequently rises to a greater height. This evil, however it may be provided against by an improved condition of the bed of the river, cannot be prevented. On the contrary, it may be expected to increase in proportion as the settlement and cultivation of the lands throughout the Great West continue to progress.

Incident to the condition of the river may be considered the swamps, lagoons or dead lakes interspersed along the low grounds that lie on both sides of the river, throughout much of its length in the lower valley. These act as reservoirs or feeders to the main river. In time of floods, much of the surplus water flows into them, and, remaining there until the water in the river begins to fall, returns to the main channel. In this way they tend to equalize the volume of water in the river, preventing it from rising as high, in time of flood, as it otherwise would, and also, from falling too rapidly. The effect which they have upon the condition of the river is beneficial, not only because they check, in some degree, the tendency to overflow, and shorten the time of low water; but, also, because they serve as repositories for much of the sedimentary matter brought down by the water which otherwise would remain in the river channel.

The Remedy.—Before proceeding to state the remedy for the present evils and threatened dangers, it may be well to lay down a few simple general principles in Hydrodynamics. The velocity of running water depends upon volume, fall and resistance. When these are uniform, the velocity is always the same; but, in proportion as the volume and fall are lessened, and the resistance increased, so is the velocity diminished, and *vice versa.* From this arises the fact, that in a straight reach of equal cross sections, where the volume, fall and resistance are uniform, the velocity remains the same; while in a sinuous course of unequal cross sections, where the fall is diminished, the resistance increased, and both constantly varying, though the volume may remain the same, the velocity is not only lessened, but it becomes varied in different parts of the channel. Velocity also varies where uniformity is wanting in the breadth of the bed; being greater where the bed is narrow and deep, than where it is wide and shallow. Water, in a state of motion, is enabled to take up and carry with it the sediment from the bottom of the bed along which it flows; while still water deposits there whatever body heavier than itself may fall into, or be contained in it. The quantity and character of the sediment thus taken up, depends upon the degree of velocity with which the water runs. It requires less to take up alluvial sediment than sand, sand than gravel, and gravel than stones, or boulders. Thus the velocity of the current regulates the depth of its bed. Where it is great, the channel is deep, for the current is able to take up the sediment, or sand, and carry it along; and where it is languid, the channel is shallow, because the current is not only unable to scour out its bed, and keep it deep, but even to carry the sediment brought from those parts of the channel where the velocity is greater, but deposits it along the bed, thus elevating the bottom, and making the river more shallow. From these few simple principles it is plain, that the course of a river should be straight, and its bed of a uniform breadth, or cross sections, whereby a regular velocity may be secured, the discharge of water be performed in the shortest time, and the abrasion of the banks prevented.

In accordance with these principles, the remedy for the evils in the present condition of the Mississippi is as follows:

1st. If a straight course cannot be given to the river, from its too great expense, or other local difficulty, it can be made to approximate as nearly as practicable to such a direction of its channel: that is, to alter the present curves, so that those of small radii may be replaced by others of much larger radii; and the angles of incidence be considerably enlarged. This alteration in the course of the river, by diminishing resistance, and increasing its fall, would have a tendency to lessen abrasion, and by rendering the velocity more uniform, deepen the channel, remove present shoals, prevent their re-formation, and relieve the river in time of flood, by causing a freer discharge of its water.

2d. Establish a uniform cross section between the principal tributaries and outlets, so as to adapt it to the volume both at high and low water mark. This would aid in accomplishing the result sought for above.

3d. Regulate the width, and centralize the current, by giving the channel such a form, that the greatest depth and velocity may be in the middle of the bed, and its least depth and force near its banks and levees. This would prevent abrasion, and secure permanency to the channel.

The old Remedies and their Defects.—In all attempts to remedy the evils arising from the defective condition of the Mississippi, the practice has been to erect new levees, and raise still higher those already in existence, in order to prevent overflows, or assist nature in her efforts to straighten the course by making cut-offs. The state of the river for the last few years shows clearly enough, that, while the elevation of the levees may have a temporary effect in confining the water within the channel, it affords no permanent security, and applies no remedy whatever, to the courses which are evidently rendering overflows more frequent and more destructive. Indeed, the increased height of levees helps to render the overflows more destructive, when the water, rising still higher, finally breaks through. Because; the volume of water brought down by subsequent floods being either increased in quantity, or having a more elevated surface from the partial filling up of the bed, presses upon the levee with greater weight; and when it does break through, pours from a greater height, and makes its ravages more sudden and widely extended.

Neither has any attention been paid to giving a proper direction to the course of the river, or to make the bed between the levees of such a form as would prevent the injurious action of the current on the banks and levees. So no remedy has been adopted for the bad effects of abrupt curves, or acute angles of incidence, which are the most active causes of irregularity in the bed, and abrasion of the banks.

The relative Merits of the different modes of directing the bed.—A most important point in regulating the course of a river that abrades its banks, and frequently changes its bed, is the proper direction of the channel. But the mode of doing this has given rise to a variety of opinions. One is to give long reaches—long as the country will admit—with the angles of meeting rounded off by curves. This plan, however, is defective, and the defect is in proportion to the fall of the water; for the velocity acquired on the straight reach exercises a powerful and injurious effect on the curve where it meets the resistance of the concave bank, particularly where the curve is of small radius, and the angle of incidence acute. It would render defensive works necessary to protect the concave bank, which must cause great expense, but can prove of but little service. Neither should straight reaches be rejected altogether. Where the course cannot be made direct, nor curves avoided, straight reaches may be admitted, if of moderate length, with curves of as large radii as possible, to lessen resistance in the curve and the injurious effect of the current on the concave bank. Yet, even this is rejected altogether by many, because, in some rivers so regulated, they find curves, angles of incidence, and abrasions. They affirm that irregularities are always produced by this plan, by irregular resistance in the river's bed, and by deposits which vary with every flood; and that, to insure it from all change, defensive works are absolutely necessary throughout its entire length, and on both sides, which would involve heavy expenses; while, in curves of small radii, the current never abrades the convex bank, and defensive works cannot be needed under any view, save on the concave side.

But such opinions are unsound, and exhibit, on their part who hold them, a great want of good practical judgment and mature reflection.

Although defensive works be only needed on the concave banks, yet, in a river made up of curves of small radii, there must necessarily be far more of them needed than in one of straight reaches of moderate length, connected by large curves.

In the second place, as resistance must always be greatest on the concave side of a river thus made up of curves of small radii, because the angles of incidence being more acute, the action of the current in the bend is more violent and injurious than in larger curves; so, whatever defensive works be needed, they must be much stronger and more expensive.

Thirdly, the irregularities found in rivers of this kind—namely, of straight moderate reaches with large curves to connect them—arise from the imperfect manner in which this system of improvement has been carried out, rather than in the system itself. For in none of these cases has any attempt been made to give the bed of the river a regular cross section, and thus confine the force of the current to the middle of the channel; the only method by which the banks of the river can be protected from abrasion. It is neither just nor reasonable to urge, or argue against any system, the imperfect manner of carrying it out; the evils of which had been effectually prevented by its proper execution.

The advocates of small curves, with well protected concave banks, seem to believe that bends and angles of incidence cannot be avoided; and are satisfied with attempting to remedy their evils in what they conceive the best manner, and at the least expense. But I am satisfied that they *are* to be avoided by straight moderate reaches, and curves of large radii, when the course of the river cannot be made altogether direct—and that it is more consistent with sound policy to remove the causes of irregularity in the bed and abrasions in the banks, than to patch up any remedy for evils consequent on their existence. And I am equally satisfied such a policy will prove the cheapest in the end.

The Principles upon which the proposed System of Improvement is based.—Where the Mississippi runs in straight lines, or in curves of large radii, and where the greatest depth of water occupies the middle of the channel, forming a basin from which the banks on either side rise with a gradual and uniform elevation, we find no abrasion of the banks; consequently, the principles which serve as the base of the proposed system are neither innovations, nor mere theoretical ideas, but the results of a simple imitation of the mode which nature, when uninterupted, adopts to regulate the motion of water. It is an established fact, that in straight canals, where the cross section is formed of a half circle, the greatest velocity is always in the middle, where there is the greatest depth, and, consequently, the least resistance to motion. It is equally true, that where the banks of a river or a canal rise from the bottom of the bed progressively, with a gradual and uniform elevation, the velocity and action of the current are weakest near the banks, and there exists no apprehension of abrasion. These facts being indisputable, the problem is reduced to finding the means to give, and preserve, to the bed, a proper direction, and a cross section composed of a regular concave form, deepest in the middle, with lateral sides, or banks, rising from the bottom of the bed with a gradual and uniform elevation.

Reasons in favor of the Application of those Principles.—By the adoption of this system of improving the channel of the lower Mississippi, two important effects will be secured.

1st. The middle of the bed being the deepest, the greatest velocity and action of the current will be confined to that part where it can produce no injury; but, on the contrary, prove most useful in deepening the bed, and keeping it clear.

2d. The banks rising from the bottom of the bed in the form of inclined planes, or gentle curves, presents the least possible resistance, and, the water nearest them having the least depth and velocity, there can be no abrasions of consequence, and little probability of changes in the channel.

The only difficulty in the application of this system of improvement consists in maintaining the regularity of the proposed profile. The displacement of materials, which always takes place during floods, is generally caused by the irregularities of the present channel, and is considerable only where there are sudden changes in the fall, or in the direction of the current. These causes would not exist were the channel regulated as proposed; and the higher parts of the banks or batture in front of the levee being covered with a sheet of water of little depth and velocity, the displacement of materials would only occur in the middle of the bed along which they would be carried, rendering the formation of shoals highly improbable; or, if formed at all, they would be of little consequence. And if the slight irregularities still remaining, caused by abrasions during a flood, they would only acquire a slight depth, which the materials that the current always brings down with it would fill up as soon as the velocity diminished.

Admitting, even in opposition to the advocated opinion, that there would be a considerable transport of materials, they would be almost equally deposited, because the uniform action of a current in a regular channel could not produce irregular effects; so the regime of a river could not be sensibly altered. I am well satisfied that the quantity of matters carried along by the current would be much less in the bed if properly regulated, than in its present state. The displacement of the materials forming the bed, which now takes place at every flood, are only due to the sudden changes in the breadth and direction of the current, which are constantly occurring in the present condition of the river. The abrasion of the steep concave banks in the curves of the small radii, and that of the bottom caused by the irregularity in the velocity of the stream, provide the greater part of the materials now carried along by the current; while the want of uniformity in the direction and breadth of the bed, causes the changes in the extent and height of deposits at the convex sides. In an entirely straight channel, or in one consisting, as before said, of straight reaches of moderate length connected by curves of large radii, of a uniform cross section, and with gradually inclined banks, and regular fall, those causes would not exist.

The Mississippi, in its lower course, carries along in suspension small particles of earth, and at its bottom fine sand, which results from the abrasion of its banks, or from the tearing up and wearing away of its bed; while the gravel and *debris* from the upper course of the river and its tributaries, which are found on its lower course, were, no doubt, deposited there at the time of the great revolutions of the globe. It follows from this, that as soon as we avoid the abrasion of the banks, and the causes of the accumulation of deposits in the channel, there will be little displacement of the materials which compose the bed and banks, then the accumulation of deposits will be prevented, and the *regime* of the river be regular and uniform: for the form of the proposed bed will effectually prevent the removal of its materials, and the irregularity of the deposit of such sediment and sand as may be brought down from the higher parts of the river, which I am justified in considering the chief evils of its present condition, and the result entirely of those defects which I propose to remedy.

Character of the proposed Improvement.—The special character of the system which I propose for the improvement of the Mississippi River, may be thus stated:

1st. The bottom of the bed will have a concave form, with the greatest depth in the middle, with lateral sides rising progressively towards the top of the banks, so that the current will be completely centralized.

2d. That the action of the current will be strongest in the middle, where it can do no injury; but, on the contrary, be useful in removing all materials which would otherwise be deposited there, and might tend to alter the regularity and uniformity of the cross section.

3d. That the high water cannot reach the levee except over a gentle plane, or slope, covered with grass, which will have a tendency to lessen its action, and thereby prevent abrasion; so that there will be no apprehension of its being broken through, or requiring any important repairs.

4th. That the borders of the bed being thus protected, and secured from the force of the current, and the middle kept deep and clear, the levees will not require to be as high as under the present system, and may be made of common earth, the interior slope being lined with grass, thus combining the least possible resistance to the passage of the water, with economy in construction and facility of repair.

5th. That the channel of the river, approximating as nearly as practicable to a straight course, and the main force of the current being confined to the middle, and nowhere washing against the banks, there will be no possibility of the formation of shoals, and scarcely a probability of the existence of snags, or sawyers, to impede navigation, or render it dangerous. For such trees as may be brought down from the upper course of the river, or its tributaries, will naturally be carried by the force of the current into the middle of the channel, where the depth and velocity will be greatest, and where they will meet with no impediment to stop or detain them in their onward course to the gulf.

Advantages of the proposed Improvement.—I think that the proposed system for the improvement of the Mississippi River, on account of its special advantages, and its economy, is not only the best, but the only practicable one for permanently regulating the channel and embanking the river; and that when its advantages, and the facility of its execution, are once confirmed in the public mind by experience, it will afford a model for regulating and embanking such other rivers as may require improvement, and be adopted in preference to any other, with such slight modifications as the peculiar character of each may require. I am convinced that this system, fully and properly carried out, will entirely prevent the too frequent disasters caused by inundation, and secure to navigation a mid-channel of uniform, constant and sufficient depth everywhere, and at all seasons.

These advantages appear to me to be sufficiently important, and to have enough claim upon public interest, to authorize my asking for this system of improvement, and the reasons upon which it is based, that attention and examination, and the sanction of that approval, which I think they deserve from the well-informed part of the community, who now begin to feel the necessity and importance of improving the course of a river, whose inundations cause so many ravages, and whose frequent changes threaten to interfere with the navigation of its channel.

Objections to the proposed Improvement.—The only objections that can be made to the mode of directing the course of the river, and of centralizing the current as proposed, is, that it will require land at some places, for a new channel, and at others for extending the breadth of the present bed of the river. But it is certainly better that the planters who reside along its banks, and whose interests are so deeply involved in the future as well as the present condition of the river, should make a voluntary sacrifice of the necessary land, by which a perfect guaranty may be secured for the rest of the delta, than that their plantations should continue to be exposed, as they are at present, to heavy losses every year from inundations caused by the wearing away and breaking through of the levees.

The examination of a system of improvement is often referred to persons who are not thoroughly acquainted with the subject, and who judge of the plan before them according to ancient prejudices and opinions, which are not applicable thereto; and the proposed improvement, being unfamiliar to every day's practice, it is rejected, and society deprived of all advantages which may arise from it, or would contribute to the advancement of its commercial and agricultural prosperity. We admit that government ought to be very cautious about adopting a system of improvement suggested by persons who have no experience, and who are unable to give a detailed account of the principles upon which they base them. But propositions brought forward by competent persons, who have had long experience in the practice of their profession, ought to be received with less reserve and more confidence. Instances are numerous, in which yearly losses have been permitted to continue, until the aggregate amount has gone a hundred fold beyond the expense that would have been sufficient, in the first instance, to prevent them, and in many cases the remedy has come too late to save. The reluctance of governments to undertake the responsibility of new improvements, has deprived some countries of opportunities of national pre-eminence which time never threw in their way again. Indeed, if a fair estimate could be made, it would be found that the losses consequent upon the refusal to adopt, or the procrastination of new improvements of a public character, have been greater than the actual expense of all that have ever been undertaken, successful or unsuccessful.

The present Defective and Dangerous Condition of the River.—So long as the present condition of the river is permitted to continue, all attempts to remedy the abrasion of its banks, the overflow of its waters, and the damage resulting from them, by mere temporary, or local, improvements—no matter how costly they may be—must prove utterly inefficient. The course of the river must undergo a radical change; and the system of improvement must be of a general, uniform and consistent character, before any real permanent benefit can be derived from the amount of expenditure which the giving way of the levees render yearly necessary. It is, therefore, the duty of the legislature of Louisiana to adopt some such system, as by that means only can they hope to remedy the evils consequent upon the present condition of the river; or relieve the agricultural interests along its banks, from the heavy losses yearly recurring, or save the commercial and real estate interests from the utter ruin that now threatens them. A heavy responsibility must rest upon each future legislature of that state, for every neglect to perform so highly important a duty. That the improvements hitherto attempted have proved insufficient to accomplish the end desired, requires no argument: the results speak for themselves. Till now, if the utterly futile efforts to deepen the southwest pass by dredging machines be excepted, all attempts to improve the river have been limited to a few cut-offs, executed without any regard to system, and not even in the proper direction; and of levees erected along the banks at random, without any regular, uniform, or consistent plan. In fact, the river has been left in its natural state, and entirely to the discretion of the planters along its banks. Consequently, the convex banks have steadily increased, in some cases naturally, in others by artificial means used for that purpose; so that the whole current of the river has been thrown with a yearly increased force against the concave banks, and the tendency to abrasion, change, and overflow, has been yearly increased. This is all that has been done for the river. The result of which has been to increase its already existing defects, while nothing has been attempted in aiding the discharge of the water, so as to reduce its height, or to relieve the levees from its great pressure in time of flood, which is continually wearing them away and breaking through; such as straightening the course of the river, where it could be done by the making of properly directed cut-offs, or altering abrupt curves into those of large radii, or by centralizing the current. The very means used operate against the intended object. To increase the convex banks and the levees, also, building new and raising the old, serves but to increase the resistance to the motion of the waters, and add to their accumulations in time of flood, thus making the damage more certain and wide-spread, should a crevasse occur. The great error has been, that all attempts have been made with a view, or, at least, with the result of raising the waters by impeding their progress; instead of lowering them, by straightening and regulating the bed in which they run.

Conclusions.—In thus placing my views before the public, my desire is to confer a benefit upon my fellow-citizens of the state of Louisiana, by presenting for their consideration a mode of improving the Mississippi, consisting of a system for regulating and leveeing the channel, which combines that economy and security so indispensably necessary in works of this kind. It needs no argument to prove that the evils arising from the present condition of the river are yearly increasing; and that the time has come when some general and uniform system for the permanent improvement of the channel throughout the whole lower valley ought to be adopted. For the heavy losses and expenses entailed upon the planters by periodical inundations already surpass, in the aggregate, the cost of any system of improvement that may be adopted, however general or extensive it may be. The cost of constructing the levees, even on their present defective system, is a great obstacle in the way of any general improvement of the river, as it must cause expense, which, with the uncertainty of success in the minds of some, may for a time prevent the adoption of my plan. But I feel confident that the people of Louisiana, when they consider how utterly inefficient their present system has proved, notwithstanding its immense consumption of time, labor, and money; and when they compare it with the system I propose, which is simple, comparatively cheap, and entirely in accordance with the laws of nature, they will be compelled to adopt it, even on the principle of economy, as not only the best, but the only means by which the agricultural interests can be secured from heavy and frequent losses, and their commercial and real estate interests from total ruin.

If this system of improvement be adopted by the legislature, I have no hesitation in declaring my entire confidence that the result will fully establish all that can be claimed for it. Overflows will cease; the channel will become uniform and permanent; its navigation will be secure and uninterrupted in low water as well as in time of a flood; and the agricultural, commercial, and real estate interests along the river banks will no longer be exposed to heavy losses, or threatened danger.

The great size of the lower Mississippi, the extent of territory through which it flows, and the vast and important interests which have grown into existence upon its borders, and now lie exposed to the ravages of inundations, render it utterly impossible that its power can be controlled, and its defects remedied, through the means of individual energy or individual capital. The improvement of the river must be the work of that government whose people are the most deeply interested in its accomplishment; and upon the legislature of that state must devolve the highly important duty of selecting and adopting the mode in which it shall be carried out. They can no longer neglect this duty in justice to themselves, for many of them are sufferers by the present condition of the river, and personally interested in the matter; nor in justice to the whole state, whose every prosperity is involved in it. For the manner in which they may undertake to discharge this duty, they will incur a heavy responsibility; but should they neglect or refuse it altogether, they will prove themselves to be as blind to the experience of the past as deaf to the warnings of the future.

Mobile, *November*, 1851.

ART. II.—REMARKS ON THE REPORT OF CHARLES ELLET, JR.,

IN REFERENCE TO THE DEEPENING OF THE PASSAGE OVER THE BARS AT THE MOUTHS OF THE MISSISSIPPI.

In a late report, in reference to the deepening of the passage over the bars at the mouths of the Mississippi, over the signature of "Charles Ellet, Jr., Civil Engineer," are to be found many views which I consider erroneous, and utterly inconsistent with the plainest and clearest principles of Hydrodynamics; among these I have selected three propositions, which I intend to make the subject of a few brief remarks:

1st. That the bars at the mouths of the Mississippi are the result of the accumulated deposits—not of the water of the river, but of an under-current from the gulf.

2d. That confining the river in a channel of proper breadth, even if practicable, could not produce the effect of deepening the passage over the bars.

3d. That the true mode of so deepening the mouths of the Mississippi is dredging, or stirring up the material at the bottom.

Now, in order that Mr. Ellet's theory as to the formation of the bars at the mouths of the Mississippi, and my remarks in reference to it, may be well understood, I will first give a few extracts from his report:

> "The current of the Mississippi sweeps over the bars at the mouths of the Passes, and at periods of flood, many miles out into the gulf, with a velocity almost undiminished by its contact with the waters of the gulf.
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> "But it has been suggested that the deposite at the bar is accelerated by the mixture of salt water with the fresh, which hastens the precipitation of the suspended material. This, doubtless, might occur if the assumed mixture should actually take place, to any considerable extent, at the bar. But the supposition is not supported by the fact. The river water does

not mix suddenly with the sea, but rises upon it, floats over it, and rushes far out into the gulf on the top of the denser sea water, by which it is buoyed up.

"I tested this point repeatedly, and found uniformly a column of fresh water nearly seven feet deep in the gulf, entirely outside of land, and salt water at the depth of eight feet below the surface, and extending thence to the bottom. The passage from fresh water to salt water was extremely sudden, both at sea and on the bar.

"In fact, the river does not come down with a certain normal depth and speed, and encounter the gulf at the bar, and there lose its power in the contest. No such process takes place. The fresh water is lighter than the sea water, and floats upon it, as oil or any other lighter material floats on the surface of fresh water, or as the atmosphere rests on the surface of the sea. There is no sudden union or consequent precipitation. There is no sudden destruction of velocity or consequent deposite of suspended silt. The river water, in virtue of its lesser density, rises upon the sea water, glides smoothly over it, passes out to the gulf, and slowly mixes with the sea water as the columns spread over the wider area, diminishing in depth, and is agitated and broken by the wind.

"But the water of the Mississippi does not move over the surface of the gulf at a speed of three feet per second, without imparting a portion of its motion to the sea. The equally impressible and fluid salt water, rubbed by the river which floats upon it, is carried forward by the friction developed at the surface in contact, the fresh water and salt water take the same direction towards the sea, and with nearly the same velocity, but yet keep separate.

"This state of things cannot exist to the bottom, for as the river water is for ever coming forward, if the salt water all flowed towards the gulf, it would all be carried out, and river water would take its place. Fresh water would then be found at the bottom, according to the supposition on which the plan of deepening, by contracting the channel or stopping up the bayous, depends. Salt water must come in from some quarter, to supply the current of sea water that is for ever setting towards the gulf, beneath the water discharged by the river. This salt water can only come from the sea, and can only come in *along the bottom.*

"It is, in fact, the principle of the eddy that is here at work, the movements being exhibited in a vertical, instead of a horizontal, plane.

"Now, the question is, how does this account for the existence of the bar? The fresh water running out cannot produce the deposite, for it has velocity enough to sweep away a foundation of coarse gravel. The outpouring salt water, immediately beneath the fresh, cannot produce a deposite, because it also has a velocity seaward, strong enough to remove anything that is brought down by the Mississippi. The salt water *coming in from the gulf* might produce, and I doubt not does produce, a deposite; for it passes over the soft, muddy bottom of the gulf, and moves into the river, and along the bar, at a very slow rate."

According to these facts and this reasoning, there must be usually on the bars three distinct strata of water:

"1st. Fresh water, running out at top, found by experiment on the southwest bar, to have a velocity of three feet per second.

"2d. Salt water below the fresh, also running out with nearly the same velocity at top; and

"3d. Salt water coming in slowly along the bottom, and apparently a sheet of salt water between that running out and that coming in, which will be without motion.

"But, as already said, and is obvious, all the sea water that comes in must go out again. It comes in along the bottom, and it must go out between the column of salt water coming in and that of the fresh water going out. Each particle of salt water, therefore, must change its direction and position in elevation. It must pass from an inward bound lower strata to an outward bound upper strata. But in passing through this change of motion its velocity up stream must be neutralized. It passes, to use a technical term, the 'dead point.' At this point it may cease to bear its whole burden of mud, *which it has brought from the gulf*, further forward. It leaves it, or a portion of it, at the turning point. This turning point is the place where the bar, for the time being, is in process of formation. But as the upper and lower strata are moving in opposite directions, the intermediate column must, of necessity, have a rotary motion; that motion must be shared by the lower column of salt water, and this turning point must, therefore, be found at the same time at different places along the bar."

From these extracts, it will be seen Mr. Ellet contends that the current of the river, flowing through the mouths of the Passes of the Mississippi, does not meet with sufficient resistance from the waters of the gulf to check its velocity; and, consequently, that it does not deposite the sedimentary matter which it brings from above, and so cannot have caused the accumulations of mud which form the bars; and that the fresh water of the river flowing out into the gulf, over the bars, does not even extend sufficiently in depth to reach the bars, consequently, can neither add to, nor diminish them, as the lower depth is occupied by the stream of salt water flowing in from the gulf, which stream, he says: "Might produce, and I doubt not does produce, the immense accumulation of alluvial sediment, of which the bars are composed."

But these bars are not of such a character as would be formed by any influx from the sea. They are composed, nearly altogether, of soft mud, or alluvial soil; such as must have been brought down by the river, without such a mixture of sea sand, as they certainly would have, were they formed by the direct agency of a current of sea water flowing in from the gulf. Bars formed by the direct agency of the sea, are composed of denser and firmer materials than those which compose the Mississippi bars, and which Mr. Ellet himself informed us, are frequently ploughed through to the depth of three or four feet, by ships passing in and out of the river.

But even admitting the existence of the under-current from the gulf, spoken of by Mr. Ellet, it cannot be of such a character as could possibly have accumulated such a mass of deposite, in the face of the current of the river flowing through the Passes. This under-current is not a stream of great or concentrated volume and velocity, with sufficient scouring power to scoop up from the bottom of the gulf the immense deposites which compose the bars. On the contrary, it is a shallow stream, flowing, in time of flood only, from the open sea against the current of the river, which "passes over the soft, muddy bottom of the gulf—and moves into the river, and along the bar, at a very slow rate," so says Mr. Ellet. He also says: "The current of the Mississippi sweeps over the bars at the mouths of the Passes, and, at the periods of flood, many miles out into the gulf, with a velocity almost undiminished by its contact with the waters of the gulf." Then how can he arrive at the conclusion that a mere shallow under-current, moving in "at a very slow rate," and against that of the river, could have piled up a mass of soft mud more than a hundred feet above the bottom of the channel higher up; and that, too, in the face of a current, to which the deep water of the gulf scarcely affords resistance enough to diminish its velocity? It is hardly reconcileable with even a slight knowledge of the ordinary principles of hydrodynamics. Mr. Ellet's system of reasoning here involves an absurdity. In endeavoring to establish his theory, he completely overthrows it, by proving too much. If, indeed, the water of the gulf presents scarcely resistance enough to diminish the velocity of the river, flowing through the Passes, as he says, its under-current never could have built up, in the very channels of that current, such dams as these bars; and much less of such soft materials as compose them. Or, if the bars—consisting of such huge piles of deposite, and of such soft materials—were indeed built up, as he contends, by the water of the gulf, in the face of such a current as that of the Mississippi, then the conclusion is irresistible, that the waters of the gulf *must* present a resistance sufficient, not only to check, but almost to stop, its velocity. However difficult it may be for Mr. Ellet to resist either of the above conclusions, both of which, though contradictory, are the legitimate results of his own reasoning, and either of them is sufficient to destroy his theory; he will find it still more difficult to reconcile them, as each is a full and complete offset to the other.

It may be well to observe here, that Mr. Ellet's assumption, that the velocity of the river receives no check from the water of the gulf, is based upon the fact, that the rate at which it passes out over the bars is greater than that of the current in the other parts of the river, where the channel is more than a hundred feet deep. If such a process of reasoning be correct, then it follows, as a matter of course, that where the water of a stream flows over a dam with a rapidity equal to, or greater than, the velocity of any part of the current above, the dam is no obstacle in the way of, and offers no resistance to, the velocity of the stream. It requires no professional skill or experience, to see the absurdity of such a system of reasoning as that; for though it may be true that water runs over a dam with increased rapidity, who is there, that has ever seen a mill stream, that does not know that the water above the dam is checked, and its velocity almost neutralized, by its resistance. The same principle applies to the Mississippi. Though the water of the river may pass over the bar at low water, or when the surface of the gulf is below its natural level, with a velocity greater than that of the current in many parts above, yet all that portion of its volume lying above the bars is checked, and its velocity partially destroyed by the resistance of those bars, and of the obstacles which they place in the way of its free discharge.

Whenever we permit ourselves to overlook the plain principles of science, and be led astray by a few isolated facts which, from the want of sufficient examination, appear to conflict with these principles, we invariably involve ourselves in contradictions, which lead to conclusions, not only absurd in themselves, but directly opposed to what has been so long established by experience, and sanctioned by authority, that they no longer admit of question. One of these principles, which nature has established as laws for the government of matter, is, that water is subject to the general law of gravitation, and, therefore, always flows down an inclined surface, or from the interior of the country towards the sea. Another is, that water in this travel invariably forms a channel for itself in proportion to the volume flowing through it; as it never makes a larger one than its bulk requires, nor will it ever be contented with less. If the course of a river be straight, and the channel of a regular normal breadth, the depth will be regular and uniform, and the bottom of the bed be parallel with the surface of the water. If the course of a river be winding, and the channel of irregular width, a want of uniformity will be found to characterize its depth, and shoals and sand bars will be numerous; and all subject to incessant change. If the volume of water be increased, the channel will become enlarged; and if diminished, it will accommodate itself to the reduced quantity of water. Such are the laws which govern the motion of water in a river of moveable bottom, and such are the legitimate effects produced by the operation of all laws.

The bars at the mouths of the main Passes of the Mississippi, have continued to be an impediment to the navigation of that river, ever since the first settlement of the white man upon its banks. Yet, though various plans have been suggested to remedy the evil, the only agent that ever can be made effectively and permanently useful—that is, the water of the river—is constantly, and almost whimsically, overlooked. If the volume of water, which *has* washed out, and still continues to maintain a depth of over one hundred feet at New-Orleans, be permitted to exhaust itself through innumerable bayous, and over the whole of the banks before it reaches the mouths of the Passes, how can it be expected to maintain its depth there? The scouring power, or mechanical effect upon the river's bed depends upon the volume and velocity of the water. If these be reduced, this power will be equally lessened, and the sedimentary matter must accumulate. Where the bed of the river is composed of soft alluvium, there can be no question of the power of a well-regulated current to create and maintain a sufficient channel, provided the quantity and the velocity be not diminished. But where the volume of water is lessened by outlets, its rapidity, and consequent scouring power, fails in like proportion. In the case of the Mississippi, not only is this scouring power diminished as it approaches the mouth,—and which scouring power, wherever the volume is concentrated, and the current not impeded by abrupt bends, never fails to maintain a sufficiently deep channel; but even the power to hold in suspension the immense quantity of sedimentary matter which, in time of high water, it brings from above, is considerably impaired.

This it is, which causes these deposites at the mouths of the Passes, called Bars, where the diminished momentum of the river feels more sensibly the resistance of the water of the gulf. If, instead of being dissipated through so many outlets, and over the low banks, as at present, the full volume of water was kept concentrated, a greater momentum would be maintained towards the mouths, the velocity of the current would not be diminished, nor would its scouring power be lessened; and the bars, composed, as they are, of soft alluvial soil, easily moveable, would be swept before it into the gulf.

The cleansing of the mouth of the Southwest Pass must be dependent upon the force of the outward motion of the water. Because, even admitting that the flood tides from the gulf bring with them such sand as they find outside, and are capable of moving, will not the same flood-tides, when they ebb and are united with the river current, possess and exercise a still greater scouring power, and sweep out a greater quantity of sand and sediment than they were able to bring in? Assuming, then, that the Mississippi is a tidal river, it is well known that the line of the least resistance is seaward, and that the power of the outward motion to return all sand brought by the inward one, must be greater on account of the increased volume and velocity of the water; for the scouring power is estimated according to the combined efforts of volume and velocity.

Hydrometrical observations conclusively show, that in the mouth of a tidal river are only two distinct layers, or strata, of water; the lower stratum, next the bottom, consists of salt, or sea water; and the upper one, of the fresh water of the river, which from its specific gravity floats upon it, continuing perfectly fresh, and flows in its usual course towards the sea. The only change, in time of flood, is in its level, which is raised by the salt water forcing its way underneath. The river water floats on the top during the whole flood-tide, as well as the ebb. In time of the latter, however, the velocity of the water decreases from the surface of the river to the bottom of the bed. But in some tidal rivers the flood acquires such a superior strength over the ebb, that it precipitates itself forward with great velocity, driving before it the waters of the river.

When the surface of the gulf falls below its natural level at the mouth of the river, it occasions a greater declivity in the issuing stream. This must augment its velocity by drawing more water from the stream above, while that part sinks below the natural level, and gives a greater declivity to the waters behind. And thus the stream is accelerated from its surface to the very bottom.

There is one high and one low water in the gulf in twenty-four hours, and the average rise and fall is but one foot; but the Mississippi, at its mouth, shows scarcely any ebb and flow, for the river at all times pursues its downward course in an uninterrupted stream. The volume, or amount of discharge, will remain a constant quantity, and cannot be augmented by works of art, like that of the tidal river; but we can, by properly constructed works, render it more effective in creating and maintaining a greater depth.

But Mr. Ellet asserts that the river water never touches the bars, as the under-current occupies the space between them and the fresh water, which being composed of lighter material, floats above the heavier salt water, and therefore, no increase in the volume of the current, passing out over the bar, could possibly have the effect of washing away the soft materials which compose it. And again, that even if it did, it would only cause the bars to be re-formed farther out. Upon what principle of philosophy a larger volume of water, flowing out over the bars with an increased velocity, would be unable to drive before it over the bar a shallow stream of sea water, flowing in from the gulf slowly and against the river current, he does not inform us; and, indeed, it would be difficult to imagine, when, at the same time, he asserts that the water of the gulf presents so little resistance to the current of the river, that its velocity is scarcely affected by it. As to the last objection, I can only say, what it appears to me, ought to have occurred to any practical man: that the means that would be sufficiently effectual to remove a bar already formed, would certainly be able to prevent its re-formation.

The adhesion of the fresh water to the salt, and the cohesion of the particles of water to each other, must greatly diminish the velocity of the river current on entering the gulf.

Yet Mr. Ellet tells us in one paragraph, "that the river water glides smoothly over the salt water;" and in another, that "the salt water is 'rubbed' by the river, which floats upon it."

Mr. Ellet seems to reason without any fixed scientific principles, and, consequently, weakens the force of his own assertions, by the frequent contradictions which accompany them. Indeed, he seems like a man writing at random, to forget in a second paragraph the position taken in the previous one. Hence his report exhibits a constant confusion of cause and effect, and an entire independence in his conclusions from any legitimate connection with his premises.

The laws which govern the motion of water in rivers, are not the creation of yesterday, nor the discovery of to-day. They have been in operation since the hour this globe was first set in motion, and were well understood more than four thousand years ago by the Egyptians, who availed themselves of their thorough knowledge to control and regulate the periodical floods of the Nile. The heights of this river were mostly marked on the Nilo-meter, at Semneh, in the reign of King Moeris, the great Hydrotect, who lived about 2,200 years before Christ, yet the Mississippi has not a permanent water meter even now. Is it not rather strange to find, in the present day, men professing to be hydrotects, yet utterly ignorant of the simplest principles upon which their profession is based?

Having thus endeavored to show that the cause assigned by Mr. Ellet for the creation of these bars, could not possibly have led to the accumulation of such immense sedimentary deposits; and that the reasons he gives in support of such a hypothesis, instead of being supported by well-connected facts, elicited by systematic and scientific experiments, and a thorough and well-digested course of examination, are based upon a few isolated facts, the result of hasty observation, alike contradictory in themselves, and irreconcilable with the natural and legitimate operation of the principles by which water in motion is governed; and having also endeavored to show that Mr. Ellet's assumption, that a concentration of the water of the Mississippi cannot deepen the channel at the mouth, because the current of fresh water never reaches the bottom, is utterly opposed to the plain principle of natural philosophy, and the experience of science. I will now notice the remedy which he proposes for the deepening of the channel over the bars, viz., dredging. In speaking of this plan I use the term "dredging," because I consider it here precisely the same in principle, and differing only in the *modus operandi.*

That there are cases where dredging may be useful in removing obstructions from the bed of a river, every professional man of experience will admit. In rivers where the bed is composed of such materials as are too heavy to be moved by the power which the current can bring to bear upon them, dredging would certainly be useful; and, even in rivers where the obstructions are not composed of such heavy materials, the cause which produced them being removed, dredging might be useful in bringing about a more speedy removal of the effects. But in the case of the Mississippi bars, so easily moveable whenever a sufficiently concentrated scouring power is brought to bear upon them, I contend that dredging is not only unnecessary, but that it must prove utterly useless as a remedy.

The experiments to deepen the bed of rivers by dredging or stirring up the bottom, has utterly failed at the following places:

Rivers—Mersey, Liverpool; Liffey, Dublin; Clyde, Glasgow. Frith of Forth, Leith. Rivers—Tyne, Newcastle; Wier, Sunderland; Tees, Stockton; Humber, Kingston-upon-Hull; Thames, London; Itching, Southampton. Bristol Channel, (Wye, Severn, Avon.) Rivers—Elbe; Weser, Bremen; Garonne; Aa, Groningen.

It is a well-established principle in nature, that the same causes, under similar circumstances, will always produce the like effects. While the causes which have produced, and continue to maintain, the bars at the mouths of the Passes of the Mississippi are permitted to remain, the quantity of mud that might be displaced by any kind of dredging machines, will be replaced almost as fast as it is removed. The deposit of sedimentary matter becomes more rapid in the furrows created in the bed of a river by the action of dredging machines, while the soft alluvial soil, such as that which composes the bottom of the Mississippi, will flow in from the sides, and from above, and in an incredible short space of time, restore the level which previously existed.

When a bucket of water is taken from a river, the water on every side rushing to fill the vacancy created, almost instantaneously restores the level of its surface; so the soft alluvial soil at the bottom of this one, when disturbed by temporary causes, will restore its level, just as certainly, though, from not possessing the same fluidity as the water, it will not do it quite so speedily. Indeed, Mr. Ellet himself seems to be conscious of this, when he uses the following language:

"That the channel will be filled up, to some extent, by the material of the bar adjacent to the deepened passage, is not only probable, but certain.

"This stuff cannot stand without support, and will flow in as an imperfect fluid until its surface approximates a level. But the efficient plan here suggested will remove it all as fast as it comes in, and speedily produce a channel of the most ample width. It cannot require over three or four months of high water, with a proper outfit, to open a passage as wide and as deep as can be needed for commercial purposes."

This opinion of Mr. Ellet, it appears to me, while it involves the most singular contradiction, contains an admission that effectually destroys all his reasons in favor of dredging, and proves it to be utterly useless as a remedy. He admits the tendency of the soft sediment composing these bars, to restore the level disturbed by the action of his dredging machines; and that they can remove it no faster than it comes in. If this be as he says, and there can be no doubt that it is, how can Mr. Ellet "speedily produce a channel of the most ample width," and "open a passage as wide and as deep as can be needed for commercial purposes."

From the views expressed by Mr. Ellet in other parts of his report, we are at a loss to conceive what advantage he expects to derive from three or four months of high water; and the idea that he should expect any service utterly inconsistent with them. He informs us, in his report, that the depth of water on the bars is less in time of high water than in low, which is by no means improbable. This diminution in the depth must be the result of an additional elevation in the bar, caused by a more rapid accumulation of deposits at that season. While the water at the bars, scarcely experiencing any elevation of surface from the river,—its volume being exhausted before it reaches the mouth, by the extensive overflows and innumerable outlets above it,—is unable to carry off the increased quantity of sediment which then rolls down along the bottom of the main channel, and, of course, deposits it in increased quantities at the bars. If this be so, what service can Mr. Ellet expect from increased deposits, increased elevation of the bar, and consequent diminution of depth in the water?

These are only a few of the inconsistencies and contradictions which are not explained in the report; they appear to be mysteries in Mr. Ellet's system of hydrodynamics, which the public are left to solve for themselves.

The system of dredging which attempts to remove the effects only, while the cause is still permitted to remain in full activity, is radically bad; and, if adopted for the purpose of improving the navigation of the Mississippi, however profitable it may be to those who have the management of the *job*, will prove an expensive failure to those who will have to foot the bill. No system of improving the navigable capacity of the channel of the Mississippi can ever be of the smallest permanent benefit, which does not begin by removing the cause from which arises its present defects. The accumulation of sedimentary matter is occasioned by the dissipation of the water through so many outlets, and over the banks, the natural consequences of which have been a decreased velocity in that portion of water still left in the main channel. Let that defect be removed; let that dissipation be prevented; or, in other words, let the full volume of water be guided by a judicious lateral contraction, so that a greater useful body of affluent water will be brought to act upon the bottom of the Passes, and the current of the river itself will be found to contain a power that will—and let me add, it is the only power that ever *can*—improve the navigable capacity of the Mississippi, and permanently maintain that improvement.

The dredging, or stirring up of the mud of the bottom, cannot have the effect of giving a greater velocity to the river, or assisting the waters to discharge themselves in a shorter time. This can only be done by guiding the current and confining the waters in a channel of a proper breadth.

In conclusion, I cannot but express my surprise, that a report, so full of contradictions and inconsistencies, so directly opposed to every principle of science, and to all the teachings of professional experience, should have found a place among the published documents of one of our government departments at Washington; and that it should be so far sanctioned by the Colonel of the Topographical Corps, as to carry with it his recommendation of the author to the superintendence of the execution of the plan suggested by him, in case it should be approved.

Mobile, October, 1851.

ART. III—STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

THE PARISH OF BATON ROUGE.

(Concluded.)

Life Statistics.—I am not aware of any remarkable cases of fecundity in the parish, but from the number of small children you meet with in every part of the town, one would be led to suppose they were the principal article of production. A year or two since, I was visiting at the house of a physician in a neighboring parish. One day while there, the Dr. returned from a visit to a patient, who was delivered of her seventeenth child. The woman appeared unusually delighted at the result: the cause being that she had caught up with her sister, who also had seventeen children. What is remarkable about this case was, that the thirty-four children were all by the same father. They lived in separate houses in the most harmonious manner near each other. This was in 1849; the number may have since increased.

There are several instances of longevity. Madame Acosta, born at Truxillo, emigrated to Louisiana in the year 1765, at the age of nine years, and is now ninety-five. She enjoys excellent health, has a mind almost unimpaired, attends church, to which she walks a distance of at least half a mile from the residence of her great grandchild, Mrs. Dufrocq, the wife of the Mayor of Baton Rouge. Madame Arrayas was among the emigrants from the Canary Islands, who settled in Galveztown in 1774. Her age is not exactly known, but is supposed to be upwards of ninety; she has but a confused recollection of early events.

The parish is generally considered healthy. The most common diseases are intermittent fevers. The yellow fever has made its appearance in the town at various periods. The greatest mortality from this disease occurred in 1822. During that season there were a large number of soldiers and strangers unacclimated, added to which the lower portion of the town was inundated, and both citizens and soldiers had greatly exposed themselves in working at the crevasses on both sides of the river. Of late years, diseases, attended with diarrhœa, have been more common, but this has been the case throughout the state.

The number of deaths from June, 1849, to June, 1850, out of a population of 11,979, was 340. Of these, among the white population, 14 were from cholera, 23 from other diseases. Total, white 37. The mortality of the slave population was from cholera, 143, other diseases 170. Total 313. The total mortality of whites, exclusive of cholera, 0.62 per cent., a little over one death per annum out of every 300 inhabitants. During the time of my residence here, I have particularly noticed the deaths occurring in the town, and have found that at least two-thirds were transient persons, who came to the place with previous symptoms upon them of the disease from which they died. Quite a number of them were persons of dissolute and intemperate habits. Sanatory regulations would greatly benefit the place. Public baths should be established. The town council have now under consideration, the establishment of a registry of births, deaths and marriages.

The population of Baton Rouge		in 1785	was	270
"	Manchac	"	"	77
"	Galveztown	"	"	242
"	Baton Rouge	1788	"	682
"	Manchac	"	"	284
"	Galveztown	"	"	256
"	of the Parish of Baton Rouge	in 1820	was	10,847
"	" "	1830	"	6,698
"	" "	1840	"	8,138
"	" "	1850	"	11,979
Of which number there were of	whites			5,628
" "	slaves			6,051
" "	free colored			243

The American is the predominant population of the parish. The Germans, French, Irish, Spanish, Italian, English and Scotch follow next in order.

The population of the town of Baton Rouge is about 4,000. In 1847 it was 2,523; in 1840, 2,269. Its most rapid increase has been within the last four or five years. When it was taken by the patriot forces under General Thomas in 1810, it did not contain over two or three hundred inhabitants. Meteorological tables have been kept at the garrison for the last thirty years, but they have been unfortunately lost. The quantity of rain that fell during six months in 1846 was as follows:

	In.	Hun.		In.	Hun.		In.	Hun.
Mar., 1846....	12	·03	Jan., 1850	14	·59	Jan., 1851....	0	·97
April, "	17	·02	Feb., "	7	·45	Feb., "	5	·27
May, "	13	·02	Mar., "	5	13	Mar., "	1	·54
June, "	16	·00	April, "	9	·35	April, "	2	·26
July, "	14	·90	May, "	4	·19	May, "	1	·42
Aug., "	15	·90	June, "	9	·01	June, "		·97
Total....	88	85	Total......	47	72	Total....	12	43

By the foregoing you will observe, that the present season, 1851, is the dryest on record. Some years ago, in the north-eastern part of the parish, I crossed the path of a hurricane; but do not know in what year it occurred. We have had some severe gales that blew down houses and uprooted trees the present season. Colonel Claiborne, in his notes on Louisiana, mentions the singular phenomenon of snow occurring in this latitude, in the early part of September, when Galvez was on his march to capture the fort at Baton Rouge, in 1779. During the past winter of 1851, we had the deepest fall of snow within the memory of the oldest inhabitants. Sleighs were passing through the streets, and the snow continued on the ground for several days.

EDUCATION AND RELIGION.—The first house for public worship was a Quaker chapel, built by Richard Carpenter, on the plantation now owned by Colonel P. Hickey.

In 1787, four Irish priests, who had been educated at the University of Salamanca, arrived in New-Orleans, and were sent to West Florida. One of them was stationed at this place. Father Brady was the parish curate for many years previous to the possession of the Americans. In 1810, there was an old frame building used by the Catholic congregation. The first effort to establish a Protestant church, was made in 1822, by the Rev. Mr. Savage, who came here a Presbyterian Missionary. There had been Methodist circuit-riders before. There are now eight churches in the parish, two Catholic, two Presbyterian, two Methodist, one Episcopal, one common to all denominations. There is also a large congregation of the church called the "Christians," who have no established place of worship.

Four of these churches are situated in the town of Baton Rouge. The Catholic church will accommodate four hundred persons, and possesses property to the value of $12,000; the Methodist church, four hundred and fifty persons, value of property, $7,000; Presbyterian, two hundred and seventy persons, value of property, $3,300. The Episcopal church will seat two hundred and fifty persons, value of property, $2,500. The ministers of the Catholic, Presbyterian, and Episcopalian churches have stated salaries, the proceeds of pew rents. In the Methodist church, the pews are free, and the ministry are dependent upon the liberality of the members of the congregation. The presiding elder of the district resides here, and receives from Conference a salary of six hundred dollars per annum.

The Baton Rouge College was established about the year 1823, and was once in a flourishing condition. It received for many years an annual appropriation from the state. When that was withdrawn, it shared the fate of all the state colleges, and was totally abandoned. The buildings are now used by the Misses Fords, who have an excellent private female seminary in operation. There is now in the town an institution called a college, under the control of the Jesuits, to which are admitted boys of all ages. The Sisters of the "Sacred Heart" have also a flourishing school for young ladies. The number of public schools in the parish is twelve, with the same number of teachers: the number of children who attend them, five hundred.

The expense of education in private schools, of which there are three in the town, is from $2 to $4 per month, depending upon the branches taught. There are four cemeteries. The old one, on the land belonging to the United States, is no longer used. I have seen no tomb-stones later back than 1812 and 1816. The Protestant cemetery is on lands of the United States, back of the ordnance department. A great number lie buried there. The greater part having no mark upon their graves, to tell who, or whence they were, or when they returned to their last resting-place. Such is the case with the late Colonel Smyth, who died of cholera about a year and a half ago. He was a man somewhat distinguished in political life; but "the place that once knew him, now knows him no more." The Protestant Cemetery is a beautiful location, and with a little expense, might be made equal to any of the celebrated cemeteries at the north, in appearance. In January, 1850, a fair was held in the State House for the purpose of fencing the ground. I have not been able to learn why the work has been delayed.

The Indian Mound, used as a cemetery for deceased officers and their families, is a lovely and attractive spot, of which I have before spoken. There have been some thirty or forty persons buried there.

About three-quarters of a mile from the Mississippi is situated the new Catholic Cemetery, with spacious grounds; but little attention has as yet been paid to ornamenting the place. It admits of great improvement, and might be made an "interesting promenade."

Beneath the floor of the Catholic Church are the vaults of A. Grass and his wife, who donated the ground on which the church stands, with the request that his remains might be there deposited. The records of this church were destroyed by fire about twenty-five years ago.

MANUFACTURES.—There is a cotton and woollen factory in the penitentiary at this place; the machinery of which is impelled by a steam engine of 110 horse-power. The labor is performed by convicts, 210 of whom are employed in this department. The average number of yards of heavy cotton goods, linseys, &c., manufactured per week, is 18,000. There are 4,500 spindles, and 60 looms in operation. The cotton and woollen machinery is valued at $60,000. $40,000 capital is invested in machinery for making bagging and rope, at which there are 38 convicts employed. The amount manufactured per week is 2,660 yards of bagging, and 3,000 pounds of rope. This is worked by horse and hand power. There is also a foundry, machine shop, and a shoemaker's shop for the manufacture of coarse shoes; and there are three extensive steam saw mills in the town of Baton Rouge, which turn out about 15,000 feet of lumber per day in total. A large brick yard, worked by steam machinery, which manufactures from 15,000 to 20,000 per day.

The whole number of convicts now in the penitentiary is 304. There are but 240 cells; and this house of industry is at present rather crowded. It is a fact worthy of note, that when an epidemic of any character—of yellow fever or cholera—has prevailed in the town, its effects have never been felt within the walls of the penitentiary. So—to what can this be attributed? Probably to cleanliness, and the regular mode of living.

The penitentiary was erected here in 1834, and since that period about 1,500 convicts have been admitted. Formerly this institution was under the control of directors, and a warden appointed by the governor of the state. For the last four or five years it has been leased to Messrs. McHatton & Ward, who pay to the state an annual sum of $\$4{,}000$. The clerk is elected by a board of directors, and the latter are appointed by the governor.

The most desirable portion of the town is occupied by the United States garrison and Ordnance Department. The United States own $213\frac{50}{100}$ acres as a reservation.

There are seven brick buildings and two frame in the garrison. In the arsenal there are fifteen buildings of brick, and two of frame. There are two hundred and six pieces of artillery; 31,543 stand of small arms; 101,562 shot and shells, fixed and unfixed; 5,283,505 cartridges for small arms, and 71,385 pounds of powder on hand at the arsenal.

The total value of lands, buildings, and munitions of war, at the Baton Rouge Arsenal, is $\$1{,}152{,}854\frac{9}{100}$. Lt. Col. Webster, of the 4th artillery, is in command of the garrison; having under him Lt. Daniel Nickel, and one company of the same regiment. Captain Whitely is in command of the arsenal. The garrison is intended to accommodate from 1,000 to 1,500 troops. The present buildings were commenced in 1819, and finished in 1823. Dr. B. F. Harney has been resident surgeon for about thirty years. Persons visiting this place should not fail to see the garrison and arsenal.

The buildings are neat and elegant, and everything about the premises is kept in appropriate style. The naval depot, or yard, at Memphis, should by all means have been at this place. There is a deep bayou on the upper portion of the U. S. grounds, that would be far preferable to the miserable location at Memphis; and all the necessary materials would have been equally as near.

BANKS, &c.—By the act incorporating the Bank of Louisiana, passed in 1824, a branch was established at Baton Rouge, for the parishes of East and West Baton Rouge, Washington, St. Helena, and St. Tammany, with a capital of 200,000 dollars. This branch has long since ceased its operations. Branches of the Atchafalaya, State and City Banks, have experienced the same fate. A branch of the State Bank of Louisiana was established here in 1850, in which the State Treasurer was authorized to keep his deposits. Its capital is $100,000. J. B. Kleinpeter is the president, and Wm. S. Pike, cashier.

A charter was granted for a rail-road, from Baton Rouge to Clinton, in 1832. A survey of the road was made, the track cleared the whole distance, and about two-thirds of it graded; the rails were never laid, and it is now used as a public road. It is now in contemplation to build this road, and continue it to Liberty, in the state of Mississippi. It could be done at a comparatively trifling cost. There is internal navigation on the Amite, to a distance of about twenty miles, for small vessels and steam-boats. The Manchac is also navigable for some distance. There are no learned or scientific societies in the parish, if we except the Agricultural Association, which has ceased operation for some time past. There are funds belonging to it yet in the hands of the treasurer, and it ought to be revived. There are two branches or agencies for insurance offices in the place. The number of paupers in the parish, according to the returns of the census of 1850, was 20: 19 were natives, and 1 foreigner. They were supported by the parish. It is in contemplation to build an alms-house for their reception.

Baton Rouge has, probably, a larger number of charitable associations than any other town in the state, according to its size and population. The masons have a large hall, and number about sixty members. The Odd Fellows and Sons of Temperance meet in the Odd Fellows' Hall weekly; the former on Thursday, and the latter on Monday night—they each number from sixty to seventy members. There is also a German benevolent association, numbering about sixty members.

There are three divisions of the Sons of Temperance in the parish, Capitol Division, Plain's Division, and Salem Division, numbering in all not far from 250 members. There is also a female orphan asylum, under the control of the ladies of the place. About fifteen orphan children are under the care of a kind matron, Mrs. Burgess. An appropriation was made by the legislature to this excellent institution at the last session. The ladies purchased a place, and intend soon to erect a suitable building for their accommodation.

LITERARY PRODUCTIONS, &c.—The only works of a literary character emanating from this neighborhood, are those of J. B. Thorp:—"Campaigns of the Mexican War;" "Tom Owen, the Bee Hunter;" and a number of fugitive pieces, for the magazines and newspapers, which have obtained some celebrity in the literary world.

Manuscripts are numerous. I have before alluded to them—twenty volumes in French, Spanish, and English, in the Recorder's Office; those in the possession of Messrs. Hickey, Skipwith, and Grandpre; rare old books in the State Library, pertaining to the history of Louisiana. An old English map, made for Governor Chester, under the English regime, in 1774, containing all the grants of land made under the British government, with the names of the grantees, alphabetically arranged, now in the possession of the Messrs. Wallers, civil engineers. These would form an interesting collection for an historical society, and should be obtained, before they are for ever lost in oblivion.

The foregoing answers to your series of questions are necessarily imperfect. As regards the population of the parish at different periods, there appears a discrepancy, which I am unable to account for. This is especially the case with the census of 1820, which exhibits a larger population than at any subsequent period up to the census of 1850. In that year there was a large floating population, and an unusual number of U. S. troops stationed here. Several hundred Spanish loyalists, driven out of Mexico by the patriots, had taken refuge at this place. Another cause is the careless manner in which the census is generally taken in this state.

The municipal election of 1822 exhibits a large population in the town, the highest candidate having received 243 votes, at a time when suffrage was limited to tax-payers and property-holders, which is but one hundred votes less than at the late election, under the system of universal suffrage.

In 1822 Baton Rouge contained:

259 White Families.
14 Black "
178 Private Houses.
10 New Buildings.
1 Theatre.
1 Bank.
1 Catholic Church.
1 Jail.
1 Court House.
1 Post-Office.
2 Printing offices.
2 Lodges of Free Masons.
5 Hotels.
1 Academy and 2 Schools.
1 Tanner and Currier's yard.
2 Cabinet Makers' Shops.
2 Saddler's "
45 Stores and Groceries.
7 Tailors' Shops.
3 Shoemakers' Shops.
2 Barbers' "
2 Bakers' "
1 Tinner's "
2 Watchmakers and Silversmiths.
1 Shoe and Hat Store.
2 Blacksmith Shops.

The election of 1822, in New-Orleans, was warmly contested between what was denominated the French and American parties. The former were triumphant, and elected Moreau Lislet Senator, and Messrs. John R. Grymes, P. E. Fancher, F. Grima, E. Mazureau, A. Devazac, and C. Maurian. The Louisiana Advertiser, in commenting upon the election, in one of its numbers, directly after the result was known, speaks in this wise: "The result of the election in this city has excited much interest. The excitement promises to be neither limited nor short-lived; and judging from present appearances, we look forward to divisions and dissensions in society of the most painful character."

One of the divisions, of an exciting and painful character, as predicted, was brought about by a resolution introduced by Moreau Lislet, to deprive the Florida members of their seats in the Senate. The preamble and resolution is as follows: "Whereas it is provided by the 10th article, 2d section of our constitution, that the state shall be divided into fourteen sectional districts, which shall forever remain indivisible, and each of them elect one senator: and whereas that number of the said senatorial districts could not be diminished or enervated, except by amending our said constitution, which could be done by a convention only:

Resolved, That so much of the first section of the Act, entitled "An Act for apportioning the representation of that part of Florida annexed to the State of Louisiana, and for other purposes," as goes to establish three new senatorial districts, and to give to that part of Florida the right of electing, and sending to our general assembly three senators, is, in the opinion of the senators, a direct violation of our said constitution; and that the three persons holding at present their seats in the Senate, as senators by virtue of the said Act, have been unconstitutionally elected, and can no longer retain their seats."

As may be supposed, a violent debate arose upon this resolution, which came near producing serious consequences. General Thomas, the senator from Baton Rouge, protested against its immediate consideration, but the Senate persisted; and the ayes and nays being called for, Messrs. Beauvais, Bouligny, Declouet, Ducros, Flanjac, Moreau Lislet and Perret, voted in the affirmative; and Messrs. Thibodeaux, Bossier, Cabine, Hebert, J. A. Smith, J. D. Smith, and Thomas, voted in the negative. So the Senate was equally divided, and the resolution failed. But it was contended by gentlemen in the affirmative, that Mr. Thibodeaux, the president of the Senate, who had voted in the negative, was not entitled to a vote except on a tie; a motion for reconsideration was then made and carried. On the 23d of January, 1823, Major Clark, of St. Tammany, moved that the resolution of Lislet be expunged from the journals, which, after a heated debate, finally prevailed. "In the progress of this debate, General Thomas did ample justice to his cause, his constituents, and himself."

Larry Moore, a representative from Livingston parish, of whom many amusing anecdotes are related, took a deep interest in the debate. He was a rough, plain-spoken and unlettered man, but openhearted, brave, and generous. In the course of the debate, Ruffignac, formerly mayor of the city of New-Orleans, made a violent speech in French, characterized by all the grimaces, contortions, and genufluxions of French oratory. After he had concluded, Larry arose; and although he had not comprehended a single word of what had been uttered, addressed the speaker nearly as follows:—(I will premise by stating that Ruffignac had a large red proboscis, over which were interspersed blue veins of uncommon size.) "Mr. Speaker," said Larry, "I plainly see this affair has got to come to a gineral fight; and when it does come to that, I shall pick out the fellow that's jist set down there, with the *calico nose*, (pointing at Ruffignac,) for my man, and I intend to give him particular h—l." Then addressing the clerk, the late Judge Cannonge, "And Mr. Clerk, I want you to tell him that, in his own d—d lingo!" The clerk, who was a very polite gentleman, of mild manners and conciliatory disposition, observed in his interpretation, that "the gentleman from Florida said he exceedingly regretted to see so much hostile feeling evinced among members of the same great political family, and much feared that serious results might ensue, which would be highly detrimental to the interests and welfare of the state, and hoped that a better feeling might be entertained among the members."*

ART. IV.—VIRGINIA COMMERCIAL CONVENTION.

RESOURCES, INDUSTRY AND IMPROVEMENTS OF VIRGINIA—HER CONTEST FOR THE TRADE OF THE WEST, AND PROPOSED FOREIGN TRADE.†

The committee appointed to report to the convention the most efficient means of achieving its important objects, have performed that duty, so far as the materials existed for a proper statistical exposition of the value of the trade of Virginia, as well as the facilities completed, or in progress, for its transportation to the exporting cities of the state.

The commercial prosperity of Virginia is based upon the employment of the Chesapeake ports; and no project for acquiring the materials or the means of exportation, can be successful, which does not contemplate their employment.

The country tributary to the Chesapeake, possesses advantages not surpassed by any other on the Atlantic. Nature has been so bounteous, that the difficulty has been, not so much to discover a good site for a city, but to discriminate between the numerous excellent locations presented. Norfolk, Richmond, Petersburg, Fredericksburg, and Alexandria, have all been established to receive and conduct the trade of Virginia.

From the individuality of these local interests, it has been heretofore impossible to adopt any system of improvement calculated to promote the exclusive advantage of any one of the cities referred to. Apprehensive that the limited trade legitimate to each might be diverted to some rival, impediments have been thrown in the way of great lines of communication with the interior of our own and other states, calculated, perhaps, to vary the local direction of some particular trade, but destined, in the end, to compensate each of these cities, by its dividend of a trade far surpassing in magnitude and value, any particular loss. The evils of rivalry will, however, be no longer felt, each of these cities having received a line of internal communication, many of which are now converging to a common point of union ; interests heretofore supposed antagonistic, are now harmonized in the completion of a plan common to them all, and weapons brightened by the conflict of a generous rivalry, are now wielded in the achievement of a common triumph. It is thus that the construction of the South Side Rail-road, and of the James River Canal, make the prosecution of the Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road alike important to Lynchburg—to whose public spirit is so largely due the conception and execution of that great project—to Richmond, and to Petersburg. The extension of the great central rail-road to the Ohio, no longer a subject of exclusive interest to Richmond, appeals to the support of Alexandria. The completion of the Dock connections will connect Norfolk with the James River and Kanawha Canal, and interest that city in its extension to the Ohio. The Richmond and Danville Rail-road is upon the same principle, a work from which Petersburgh and Richmond may derive common benefits.

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* The question was finally amicably settled, and some poet, whose name is lost to posterity, celebrated the same in a poem of forty-six verses, under the title of "The Florida Question." We give a few of these verses as a specimen:—

> Grave Lislet then, with spectacles,
> Most like a lawyer sage,
> March'd foremost of his company,
> The wordy war to wage.
>
> "Show me," said he, "whose men you be,
> That stand so boldly there:
> You fellows—you, from Florida,
> By God, you've no right here."
>
> The man that first did answer make,
> The noble Clark, was he,
> Who said, "We list not to declare,
> Nor show whose men we be."

† This address was prepared and presented by Wm. M. Burwell, of Bedford. It is an able, instructive and luminous paper, deserving of wide and general study.—Editor.

Convinced, therefore, that their interest and duty alike demand a cordial alliance, the cities of Virginia will hereafter bestow upon the extension of the great lines of improvement here indicated, their earnest and combined co-operation.

Since, however, the partial completion of these great improvements have already bestowed upon the cities of Virginia a large accumulation of trade, it becomes necessary to encourage the establishment of a commercial marine, of sail-ships and steamers, to convey abroad our own trade, and exchange for it the productions of other nations. The export and import trade of Virginia is now taxed with transport coast-wise, for exportation from northern cities; it is burthened with the charges of northern merchants ; whilst the whole commercial profits resulting from freights, exchanges, as well as from the importation and supply of the goods received on exchange, result exclusively to northern capital and to northern enterprise.

We state this fact in no spirit of sectional prejudice, but as a consequence of our own supineness. We think it time that a trade so circuitous, and a tribute so unworthy, should cease. We should now export from, and import into, the Chesapeake cities of Virginia, by vessels owned and manned by Southern men. No state can expect to preserve its prosperity, which does not provide for its citizens the varied pursuits in which industry and enterprise shall receive an adequate reward.

In estimating the present value of the Chesapeake trade, so far as material are at hand for a correct estimate, we will find that the James River and Kanawha Canal, its principal tributary, contributed during the last year $6,123,865 49, the products of the interior;

whilst it carried into the interior, merchandise and other articles, valued at $7,727,224 29.*

The business of the central rail-road has doubled within the past year; its downward tonnage amounting to 25,000 tons, and its upward transportation is perhaps one-half that amount. The Richmond and Danville, the Richmond and Petersburg, and Richmond and Fredericksburg rail-roads, contribute considerable additions to the aggregate of trade upon the James River.

Amongst other important items of an export trade, we may mention that the total inspections of Virginia tobacco amount to 50,000 hogsheads, of which the larger portion is shipped to Europe; whilst the remainder, with a large amount not inspected, is manufactured in the interior for consumption at home and abroad.

The flouring mills in Richmond manufactured last year 1,173,100 bushels of wheat, and are expected this year to manufacture 1,587,100 bushels. This flour is shipped to Rio, through northern houses, in vessels whose return cargoes consist chiefly of coffee. This coffee is, in turn, sent back in northern vessels to Virginia, for consumption—the freights, commissions, and commercial profits of both the export and import trade, being a direct loss to the state of Virginia, to which this trade rightfully belonged.

During the present year, however, some of the most enterprising merchants of Richmond have shipped nine cargoes of flour, directly to Rio, the vessels to return to this port with hides, coffee, and other products of South America. We are moreover informed that a larger amount of goods will be imported this year to Richmond than has been imported in any one year for a series of years; and that the direct import would have been far larger but for the want of ships in this trade, which compelled our merchants to ship through northern ports.

During the year ending July 1st, 1851, the foreign trade of James River gave employment to a number of foreign and American vessels. From a statement furnished from the Custom House, in Richmond, it will be seen that the tonnage employed in the direct foreign trade between Europe and the waters of the James River amounts to nearly 30,000 tons. This amount is itself amply sufficient to give employment to two steamers of 1,500 tons burthen.

If it were in our power to present the commercial statistics of the cities of Norfolk, derived from the Roanoke River, the Dismal Swamp Canal, and other sources; the rapidly increasing trade of Alexandria, derived from the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal, and from the country adjacent to her; of Petersburg and Fredericksburg; we do not doubt but that an amount of Chesapeake trade could be demonstrated adequate to sustain at once, by the energetic and united patronage of our merchants, a direct trade with Europe and South America. The materials for this trade already exists. Any doubt, however, which may be entertained of the present amount of Virginia commerce becomes unimportant, in view of the immense accessions to follow the completion of the improvements referred to. Whilst we pause to make the figures, the fact is upon us. A succinct statement of the works of artificial improvement, now in progress and actually completed, will serve to embody the facilities upon which we may rely, and to develope the capacity of transportation upon which the future trade of Virginia must principally depend. We think, therefore, it sufficiently appears that, looking alone at the present trade of our cities, we have ample encouragement to commence at once upon this undertaking, with the fair prospects of trade enough to ensure handsome profits to capitalists who may embark therein.

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* An. Rep. of J. R. and K. Co., Nov., 1850.

But when we glance upon the future trade which these cities must enjoy, we are still more encouraged. We will first inquire in regard to the number of miles of rail-roads and canals now constructed. Your committee have been furnished with the following very valuable statistics by the second auditor:—

Statement of the Rail-roads in Virginia completed and in progress.

	Length.	Completed.
Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road	251	90
Richmond and Danville Rail-road	147	35
Richmond and Petersburg Rail-road	22	22
Clover Hill Rail-road	15	15
South side do	122	10
Manassa Gag do	60	
Petersburg and Roanoke Rail-road	60	60
Seaboard and do do	77	77
Appomattox Rail-road	9	9
Winchester and Potomac Rail-road	32	32
Virginia Central Rail-road, including the Blue Ridge Rail-road	138	98
Virginia and Tennessee Rail-road	208	10
Orange and Alexandria Rail-road, including branch to Warrenton, ten miles	100	10
Richmond, Fredericksburg, and Potomac Rail-road	76	76
Greensville and Roanoke Rail-road	21	21
Northwestern Rail-road	120	
Miles	1,455	565
Chesapeake and Ohio Canal	185	185
James River and Kanawha Canal		200
Dismal Swamp Canal		23
Fred's Valley Plank Road	40	1
Staunton to James River	40	
Boydton to Petersburg	75	
Junction Valley	65	

It thus appears that there are now completed in Virginia 565 miles of rail-road, and 418 miles of canals; and that there are now in the course of construction 890 miles of rail-road, and 220 miles of plank roads. We have, then, the gratifying result, that there are nearly 2,000 miles of rail-roads and canals constructed, or in progress of construction, in our state. The appropriations for these works are already made, and the money has been almost entirely raised at home, without the necessity of incurring a foreign debt. The State of Pennsylvania, to make her improvements, has incurred a debt of near $40,000,000, to pay the interest on which requires a semi-annual export of over a million of dollars, to be paid the foreign bond-holders. On the other hand, our state debt is comparatively small, and owned chiefly at home by our citizens.

But this view becomes still more encouraging, when we recollect that these improvements will be finished at the farthest within the next four years. As each mile is finished, an increase will be given to the trade of our cities; and when the Virginia and Tennessee Railroad, the Richmond and Danville Rail-road, and the Seaboard and Roanoke Rail-road are finished, they will be at once connected with a net-work of rail-roads through North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia on the one hand, and Tennessee, Ohio, Kentucky, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana on the other. It is certainly a source of pride to know that we have quietly effected so much. Speculation would be at fault in estimating the trade that must follow the completion of these works. The rapid increase of our cities will be one certain effect, while the appreciation of real estate, and the profits of every industrial pursuit, will be increased. At the same time the heart of the patriot will rejoice that this acquisition of strength, wealth, population and power must result in restoring the South to her former position in the Union, and may render that Union, as bequeathed us by our forefathers, more stable and firm—its obligations everywhere observed, and everywhere sustained and beloved for the benefits conferred upon its citizens.

Georgia has now 1,000 miles of rail-road—South Carolina is extending her iron arms in every direction, and in two or three years every part of the state will be provided with rail-road facilities. North Carolina has giant schemes on foot, which she is prosecuting with a giant's strength. Tennessee will soon extend the Virginia rail-road, and the rail-road extending from Charleston and Savannah to Chattanooga, to Memphis, on the Mississippi. Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana are seeking connections with these roads, and soon we shall see the South more highly improved by rail-road facilities than the North, owing to the level nature of the country and the cheapness of labor and materials in the South. Charleston alone is moving with far-seeing sagacity for this increased trade. We feel pride and pleasure in her means, and we heartily hope she may prosper in her former enterprise to establish direct trade by means of ships and steamers owned by Southerners. We believe there is space enough, and a back country sufficiently ample, if we are true to ourselves, to secure the prosperity of all our southern towns; and their prosperity, so far from causing us to fall, will but add to our own prosperity. But how can the people of Virginia hope to contend with Charleston in the generous competition for this trade, unless equal facilities are provided in our harbors for shipping directly to Europe? If we pause in the contest, the trade will have been fixed in the direction of Charleston, and we may strive in vain to regain what is strictly our own.

To illustrate the advantages to be anticipated, we may refer to the enlightened and enterprising commonwealth of Massachusetts. The large expenditures made for the construction of rail-roads, and the results of that system, has there vindicated the wisdom which dictated it.

In that state the length of rail-roads in 1840 was 433 miles—it is now 1,033. The value of property in the several counties of the state has increased from $299,878,329 in 1840, to $590,531,881 in 1850—an increase in the value of property during ten years of $290,653,552, or about one hundred per cent.

In Boston, which is the centre of the whole system of Massachusetts rail-roads, the following result is obtained:

	Population.	Wealth.
1840	171,992	$120,114,574
1850	269,874	266,646,844

Showing an increase of 60 per cent. in population, and 140 in wealth.

Looking at the commercial returns from our own ports, the seaports of Virginia do not appear to have increased with that rapidity which the general prosperity of the state would indicate: indeed, our direct imports appear to have diminished. These unfavorable indications are, however, contradicted by the positive gain in the assessed value of real estate, and by the increased value of subjects of taxation within the state. The stagnation of our commerce is to be attributed to physical obstacles which separate the productive interior from our seaboard, whilst the enterprise of other states and cities has actually constructed improvements for the mere factorage of our produce, which we would not undertake for the positive increase of the fee simple value of the property, and the exclusive commerce of its enhanced products.

It is thus that towns in Western Virginia have sprung up, manufactures have been established, minerals have been made available, agricultural produce has been created, all of which seeks a market in the cities of Cincinnati, New-Orleans, Philadelphia, and Baltimore; whilst even Savannah, in Georgia, has participated in those productions of Virginia, which could not have paid the cost of exportation eastward to the Chesapeake cities of Virginia. The cities enumerated have supplied the Valley and Western Virginia with merchandise in exchange for its productions. The commerce of Virginia, like some fountains choked up and neglected, cheers with its scattered streamlet every region except that to which its free and fertilizing current would naturally and gladly have directed itself.

We cannot make this valuable, though dispersed trade, the subject of exact estimate. It is reflected in the increased population and taxable resources of the state, so lately the subject of elaborate exposition in the constitutional convention.

We select, however, for illustration of its value, and of the obstacles which impede its exportation, the trade on the Monongalia. This river has been improved by lock and dam, so that steamers can ascend probably within the limits of Virginia. Its trade will compare favorably with that of many rivers in Eastern Virginia; yet the natural line of exportation of its products, is by the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, the Gulf of Mexico, and coast of the Atlantic, to the markets of the East, or to Europe. The aggregate line of water transportation from Clarksburg, in Harrison county, to New-York, is not less than 4,000 miles. The time employed is not less than ninety days; yet the direct line of transit to the Chesapeake, would not exceed 400 miles, whilst the time in reaching market might be reduced to a few days. Baltimore is providing a means of direct transit to accommodate this region of country, much of which has heretofore traded with Philadelphia; but after Baltimore shall have loaded her vessels with this product of Virginia, and supplied in return the merchandise for its consumption, she will be compelled to send it within the territory of Virginia for exportation to the outlet of the Chesapeake.

A similar difference between the natural and artificial communication of that part of Western Virginia bordering on the Ohio River, and of the valley of the Kanawha with the Atlantic cities, will be found to exist, whilst a small portion of southwestern Virginia sends produce to Alabama and Georgia, purchases groceries in New-Orleans, and imports its merchandise through Charleston, South Carolina. Let it be remembered, that this is a trade to be developed. The land is not a wilderness, requiring the life and labor of generations to reduce it to efficient production. The trade already exists. It has grown up under obstacles. It has been driven from its natural outlets, to enrich a distant and foreign interest in other states. But the fact of its development under such disadvantages, proves that it may readily be secured, whilst the anxious interest of the whole West proves the alacrity with which it would co-operate in the regeneration of the commercial interest of the Virginia cities.

There may be persons, however, incredulous that the trade of Virginia, now exported from northern, western and southern cities, can be directed to the ports of the Chesapeake. It will not be doubted that the greater portion of the products of the valley and Western Virginia are destined for consumption in the northern states, or in Europe. These products would adopt the most direct line of transit between production and consumption, but for the natural obstacles which intervene and condemn them to the tedious, tortuous and perilous navigation of the rivers and coast. The direct line of transit would pass through the Chesapeake ports of Eastern Virginia.

So long as the route of the water-borne produce of Western Virginia was cheaper than any artificial line of direct transit, any attempt to divert that trade might have been hopeless. The opinion that no rail-road could succeed, unless it connected populous points, by a short line, has been reversed by experience. Considering the rail-road and locomotive almost as a revelation for the South, we may be pardoned for referring to the causes which are now producing through their agency, such important social, commercial, and political results. Time has become an essential element in the value of merchandise and staple productions. No producing region, and no mercantile community, can adopt a slow and circuitous delivery in competition with others producing or vending the same articles with greater facilities of transportation than themselves. Travel and postal communication now tolerate no delay or impediment. It is impossible to present any formula to show how far shortening the time of transit is equivalent to a positive reduction of freight. The telegraphic and express lines, every where well sustained, prove the estimated value of time to be very great; though it varies, of course, with the fear of competition, with the value of the commercial subjects, and with the relative importance of individual transactions. But we see from the opening of the artificial lines of Boston, New-York and Philadelphia, that the commercial patronage of the interior is immediately transferred to the most rapid and direct lines of outlet and intercommunication. It is thus that the great cities of the North have severally penetrated the interior with artificial lines, until they have taken from the open and untaxed current of the Mississippi the commerce produced upon its borders. These great artificial outlets have been competing amongst themselves for the commerce of the interior, until they now offer, not only superior certainty, and reduced time of delivery, but they offer upon many articles cheaper freights than the river and coast routes referred to. We copy from the New-Orleans Crescent a notice of the reversing of the natural current of trade, resulting from the construction of the great artificial lines referred to:

"For years past cotton has gone up the Ohio River from Tennessee, through the Pennsylvania and New-York canals, to all the factories in the interior of these states, and often the cities of Philadelphia and New-York. We recollect, last September, of one shipment of upwards of seven hundred bales, shipped from Louisville, via the Ohio and New-York canals to New-York city. The freights were less than by the way of New-Orleans, and the difference in exchange and insurance was near two per cent. in favor of the northern route.

"The amount of cotton that passed up the Ohio last year is estimated, by one familiar with the trade, at sixty thousand bales. This season, nearly all the boats from the Tennessee and Cumberland Rivers, bound up the Ohio River, are freighted more or less with cotton. The packets between Memphis and Louisville and Cincinnati, of which there are several lines, take cotton up the rivers nearly every trip.

"The quantity of tobacco that takes its course up the river from the Lower Ohio, for the eastern markets by northern routes, is rapidly increasing. That raised in Ohio and Kentucky, above Cincinnati—and among the latter, the celebrated Mason county tobacco —nearly all goes by the way of the canals to the Eastern markets. By a statement recently published, the difference in the cost of transportation from Louisville to New-York is four to five dollars per hogshead in favor of the northern route, while the article escapes the sweat which it undergoes on ship-board while passing through our latitudes.

"Grain is now carried from the Wabash to New-York by the canals, at the same cost of freight as is charged by the way of New-Orleans; but by the northern route, they incur no waste, no risk of damage by heating, and save the whole cost of sacking, for it is carried in the bulk, and the same number of measured bushels are delivered in New-York as are received on board the canal-boat from the shipper. The lard, pork and flour from the same region are taking the same direction. Last autumn the rich regions of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois were flooded with the local bank notes of the Eastern states, advanced by the New-York houses on produce, to be shipped by them by the way of the canals, in the spring.

"These moneyed facilities enable the packer, miller and speculator to hold on to their produce, with the opening of navigation in the spring, and they are no longer obliged, as formerly, to hurry off their shipments during the winter by the way of New-Orleans, in order to realize funds by drafts on their shipments. The banking facilities at the east are doing as much to draw trade from us as the canals and railways which Eastern capital is constructing.

"All the lead from the upper Mississippi now goes east by the way of Milwaukie. But the most recent and astonishing change in the course of the northwestern trade is to behold, as a friend tells us, the number of steamers that now descend the upper Mississippi, loaded to the guards with produce, as far as the mouth of the Illinois river, and then turn up that stream with their cargoes, to be shipped to New-York via Chicago.

"The Illinois canal has not only swept the whole produce along the line of the Illinois river to the east, but it is drawing the products from the upper Mississippi through the same channel: thus depriving not only New-Orleans, but St. Louis, of a rich portion of their former trade."

To this we may add the fact, that cargoes of corn have been recently shipped from Iowa, down the Mississippi, along the Illinois canal, by way of the lakes, to the city of New-York.

The cause of this astonishing result may be thus explained.

Artificial lines afford not only the most speedy means of transportation, but the unity and system of their administration gives them great advantage over the efforts of individual enterprise.—They have a basis of travel and mail monopoly, which enables them to discriminate in favor of any specific article of commerce, the factorage and financial results of which may be sufficient to generally indemnify them for the abatement of freight, whilst the revenue of the improvement is sustained by an increased charge upon business not subject to competition, or by the large amount of trade which they command. These exclusive resources, rapidity, certainty and safety of transportation, with the power of discrimination, has enabled these great lines to wrest from the Mississippi so much of its produce.

To establish the capacity of artificial to compete with natural lines, we publish the following tabular statement, showing the contest between New-York and New-Orleans for the trade of the Mississippi:

New-York and New-Orleans in western trade.[*]

New-York.	Population,	Canal Trade.
1840	2,429,721	66,303,892
1850	3,093,813	156,397,929

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[*] As these statistics are taken figure for figure and word for word from our Review, we give the reference, the authors of the address having neglected to do so. *See De Bow's Review, August*, 1851.

An increase of 25 per cent. in population, and 150 per cent. in trade, by canals, in ten years.

Produce of West received by New-York Canals,

1842	$22,751,013
1850	55,474,937

An increase of 145 per cent.

Produce of West received at New-Orleans.

1842	$43,716,045
1850	96,897,873

Or an increase of 120 per cent.; or a comparative increase by New-York of 25 per cent. over New-Orleans in Western produce in five years! In the three years, 1848, 1849 and 1850, the receipts at New-Orleans by river were 2,312,121 bbls. flour; at New-York, 8.636,207 bbls. Pork:—New-Orleans, 1,536,817; New-York, 211,018 bbls. Beef:—200,901 bbls., New-Orleans; New-York, 264,072 bbls. Wheat:—New-Orleans, 852,497 bushels; New-York, 8,798,759. Corn:—New-Orleans, 9,758,750 bushels; New-York, 11,178,228 bushels. Bacon:—New-Orleans, 135 millions pounds; New-York, 26 millions. Lard:—New-Orleans, 293 millions pounds; New-York, 21 millions. Butter:—New-Orleans, eight millions pounds; New-York, 97 millions, &c., &c.

We have adverted to these well established facts, and explained the rationale of their operations, to show that the trade of northern cities is derived by artificial ways from the great producing valley of the West. If this be the case—if productions prefer the lakes, railways and the canals of the north to the river and gulf outlet—why should not the produce of Western Virginia, which almost circumnavigate their own state, which pursue a distant, indirect and unsafe line of transit, replete with every danger of river, cape and coast, prefer the direct communications *through* Virginia, and the more congenial destiny of encouraging our own ports? There is no reason. Their anxiety to complete these artificial outlets proves its practicability. All the vast aggregate of trade, now existing in Western Virginia, destined for Atlantic exportation, may be safely added to that which we have already demonstrated as subject to be employed in this great enterprise. We may safely say, that if all the existing commerce of Virginia, for exportation, could be collected in her own Atlantic ports, it would not fall short of twenty millions of dollars, nor would her consumption of merchandise be less. Besides this, the very organization of commercial facilities would guarantee an immense accession of mineral and agricultural productions.

In this connection, we must press upon all interested the indispensable importance of providing for the improvement of the James River, the common outlet of much of the Chesapeake trade. Its obstructions affect the trade of Norfolk, Richmond, Lynchburg and Kanawha; and each of them are alike interested in securing the perfect navigation of this noble stream. Your committee have not chosen to awaken controversy by designating any particular mode by which this shall be done; they are aware that if the interests now appealed to, shall be convinced of its paramount importance, the means will be readily devised for its accomplishment. The able and comprehensive report of Lieutenant Stansbury, will prove the entire practicability of this work, and the moderate means to be employed in its completion.

We may properly add to these resources, which are directly derived from Virginia alone, the products of the states connected with her, by the lines of improvement now under construction. Tennessee and Kentucky, and North Carolina, will naturally find their most direct outlet through the Virginia and Tennessee, the Southside and Seaboard rail-roads, now under continuous and connected construction to the interior of the state referred to. The prosecution of the Canal or Central rail-roads, or the construction of a branch road into the Ohio Valley, will add much from those quarters; and but a few years will elapse before the perfected facilities will bring this great commerce to the legitimate ports of exportation. We will not enlarge upon the commercial results of extending these lines into the interior of the southwestern states, and the national and international intercourse which will pour through Virginia, invigorating her local improvements, freighting her vessels, and filling her ocean steamers. It will be plain, upon investigation, that no cities south of Virginia have the commercial advantages of our own—none have the varied products, the local patronage, the rapid communication with transatlantic cities. Enterprise is now doing all it can to shorten the line of ocean transit. In this the cities of Virginia cannot compete with Boston or New-York for the transatlantic intercourse of the northwestern states; but the mail and merchandise transportation, with the travel between the great southwest and the cities of Europe, belong legitimately to the Virginia ports of the Chesapeake, and will be certainly secured.

In embarking in this contest her citizens and commercial cities have a high duty to perform; they must shake themselves of every sin of selfishness or of jealousy. They must co-operate with a rivalry of devotion to the common cause. There should be no greater jealousy between Richmond and Norfolk than between Philadelphia and New-York—yet, though separated from each other by a greater distance, the joint population of the two former cities is scarcely equal to a suburb of either of the two latter. There can be no incompatibility of interest in the harmony of these and other Virginia cities. Let them unite their patronage upon the great designs of internal improvement, and upon the organization of a foreign commerce, and their destinies are established.

Yet the competition will be intense. It will require energy, union, and perseverance. The North has enterprise, capital, experience; the South possesses the world staples of cotton, sugar, tobacco, with an immense mercantile consumption. The prize is worthy the efforts of the most gifted intellect, or of the most matured experience. It is a strife to be fought with weapons congenial to the enlightened humanity of the present age. It is a contest fraught with consequences scarce inferior to those which hung upon our first great struggle.

Virginia has the deepest veneration for the Union, a cordial admiration of those sister states with whom she contends for her heritage; but she cannot break the bread of dependence, or sink into the position of an inferior, to those who were her equals.

If the commerce to which we have adverted be not utterly fabulous—if its capacities be not perverted by a mere introduction into our own cities—if the sons and brothers of those who subjected a wilderness to civilization, and gave an empire to freedom, who, braving a deadly climate and a desperate strife, planted the flag of Yorktown upon the Sierras of Mexico, be not utterly recreant to the instincts of their race, then must the glorious and peaceful triumph of commercial independence reward their patriotism and enterprise. The rewards of industry and of enterprise will be reserved to our own citizens, and the shameful tribute be abolished forever.

The committee respectfully recommends the adoption of the following resolutions:

Resolved,—As the opinion of this committee, that lines of mail or other steamers, or other vessels, from Hampton Roads to some port or ports of Europe, ought to be established; and Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, and such other southern states as are disposed to aid in the enterprise, should be appealed to; and an appeal should also be made to Congress to bestow upon such line the same mail facilities which are extended to the northern lines; and the bars which now obstruct the navigation of James River, should be removed.

Resolved,—That committees be appointed to memorialize Congress and the legislature of Virginia, and to prepare an address to the public, upon the subject aforesaid, and the great importance to the people of Virginia, and the South generally, that they should conduct their own trade directly on their own bottoms, and with their own men and means.

Resolved,—That lines of packet ships, screw-propellers, or mail steamers, ought to be established between the exporting cities of Virginia, and the West Indies, and South America.

Resolved, also,—That the people of Virginia be requested to hold meetings in their several counties, cities and towns, to effect the object of the foregoing resolution; and that to this end it be recommended to them to adopt some organization by the appointment of standing and corresponding committees, or otherwise as to them shall seem best.

Resolved,—That the merchants of our Atlantic cities ought to import directly to our Virginia ports the productions of foreign countries used and consumed in this and the adjoining states; and that it be recommended to the merchants of the interior, and the people at large, to aid them in this noble enterprise.

ART. V.—INDUSTRIAL REGENERATION OF THE SOUTH.

MARYLAND, Virginia, North and South Carolina, Alabama, Tennessee and Georgia, with many of their southern sisters, are pushing ahead with giant strides.* In the four last mentioned states, there are upwards of one hundred cotton mills in operation, consuming annually more than a hundred thousand bales of cotton. And this fact is manifest everywhere, that agriculture improves just in proportion as manufactures advance. Indeed, to my mind it is a self-evident truth, that it can be rapidly improved in this way, and *in no other.*

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* We think we may add Louisiana and Mississippi before long.—[ED.]

Conventions may be held, fairs established, newspapers published, addresses delivered, premiums awarded, still agriculture will languish and remain in a depressed and thriftless condition, until the channels for labor are diversified. Thousands who are now idle, and other thousands who are engaged exclusively in planting, must be employed, in whole or in part, in mechanism and manufactures. And soon we shall witness one of the most remarkable transformations ever experienced by any people. The South will rise, Antæus-like, from all her defeats, with renewed activity, and speedily become, as, from her natural advantages, she always deserved to be, "magnificently rich and gloriously independent." "Instead of the thorn shall come up the fir tree: and instead of the brier shall come up the myrtle tree;" and our sunny South shall again blossom as the rose.

Will the South, the chivalrous South, remain longer in a condition of colonial servitude? With such means of independence within her own borders, why should a revolution in Europe, the condition or caprice of the bank of England, put down the price of her great staples? It is unreasonable. Equally unmanly is it, to stand still and complain, and suffer anxiety on account of the anti-slavery fever of the North. Let her at once adopt the only sure and safe remedy for all these evils.

And why despair of success? Nineteen hundred and five years ago, Julius Cæsar invaded Britain, then a nation of savages, the country covered with forests and marshes, its inhabitants living by the chase, and its princes dressed in skins; now, her capital is the metropolis of the world. And, to borrow the forcible expression of one of your own writers, she might now buy Italy as a farmer purchases a field. Not long since, one of her merchant princes had it in serious contemplation, to acquire the whole of Palestine, and thus become the sole owner of the land where the tribes of Israel dwelt, and where Solomon reigned over four millions of subjects.

The wool of England, which at present constitutes the staple commodity of the kingdom, amounting in value to £21,000,000, and employing 350,000 persons in its manufacture, was, a few centuries back, sent to Bruges and other Flemish cities, to be returned in broadcloths and other products. Germany furnished her with hardware, clocks and watches; Italy with glass; China with porcelain; and France with mirrors, silk and paper. But England went to work herself. She invited over weavers, fullers, dyers, and every species of artisans, from all parts of the world. She legislated, she made treaties, until now her success is complete. The skill and ingenuity of her craftsmen, the elegance and cheapness of her manufactures, her cities and towns, her palaces and private dwellings, her roads, bridges and canals, her improved agriculture, her domestic production, her foreign trade, her public credit and private wealth, are the admiration of all, and prove her to be the most prosperous and powerful of the family of nations.

Why, I ask, should we not attain to the same perfection? Let every public functionary, every capitalist, every private citizen, respond to this question. Our country abounds with all the great elements of prosperity and wealth. Water, wood, coal, and mountains of marble, minerals and metals of every description; a soil and climate without a parallel. Let us at once, then, cease to talk, and begin to act in earnest, by resorting to those measures, that will not only induce our population and property to remain at home, but which will encourage mechanics and capitalists to settle among us. Objections may be interposed to the execution of these projects, the realization of these hopes; but who doubts the wisdom and liberality of the people to adopt every useful scheme, to sustain and support any proper plan, which will conduct to this goal?

I assume, then, as an incontrovertible proposition, that our Southern people must, to a certain extent, abandon their accustomed paths, and devise new plans for their future prosperity; that the interest of agriculture, laying aside every other consideration, imperatively demands a diversity of employment; in short, that manufactures must be combined, to a great extent, with agriculture; the one stimulating the other, and contributing to its emoluments. As an indispensable support and encouragement to agriculture, we must increase the class of consumers among ourselves; and we must abandon prejudices, however deep-rooted, against this new order of things. The standstill doctrine must be forsaken, and, forward, forward, be henceforth the watchword.

What, I would ask, has converted every acre of land in England into a garden?—crowded every sea and harbor in the known world with her ships? Certainly not her agriculture. Neither has it been by the operations of commerce, as the hand-maid of that agriculture. It has been brought about by importing the raw material from other countries, and manufacturing them at home: reserving so much as she needed for domestic use, and exporting the surplus for foreign consumption. She has managed by this means to shut out foreign manufactures; kept the balance of trade generally in her favor in all parts of the earth, and secured all the profits arising from the raw material, as well as the manufactured article passing entirely through the hands of her own people. Without raising one pound of cotton at home, she has a population there of four millions directly or indirectly dependent on this trade. But suppose she could have grown her own cotton, and that its value, when manufactured, would have amounted to more than three times the worth of the raw material; would she, think you, have deprived her own population of this source of profit and employment to so many millions? Considering what a great variety of operations the raw material undergoes, and the hundred different hands through which it passes, before reaching the consumer, would she not have secured these widely diffused benefits to the industrious of her own community? Such has been her uniform policy in relation to wool, iron, and every other article which her island produced. And such, permit me to add, will be our policy, unless dim-sighted, yea, absolutely blind to our own best interest.

England has been much more enriched by taking in exchange cotton and other commodities of foreign growth, for her iron, steel and cotton goods, and other manufactures, than to have been repaid in gold and silver: by furnishing employment to multitudes in their preparation, and then exporting the wrought goods to the same countries whence the raw material was originally brought. But we are capable of producing most that we consume. To *breed*, *raise*, and *manufacture*, then, as much as possible, within herself, is the true policy of South Carolina—is the true policy of every state. Did you ever know a planter who produced at home all he *consumed*, *used*, or *wore*, that did not prosper? Did you ever know an execution for debt levied on the property of such an individual? Nations are but an aggregation of individuals. It was a favorite maxim with that rigid economist, Cato the Censor, that a farmer should be always seeking to *sell*, rather than to *buy*.

I had supposed that the principle was well settled, that no commerce was so disadvantageous as the exchange of the raw material by the producer, for the manufactured goods of another country. And that, other things being equal, that nation would always prosper most which gives profitable employment to the greatest number of its inhabitants; or which, in other words, raises the raw material, manufactures them, and carries in its own vessels these commodities to foreign markets; and that for the obvious reason that in this way all three of the industrial pursuits—agriculture, manufactures, and commerce—are alike sustained and supported. Nations may flourish temporarily by any one of these pursuits; but history demonstrates that such prosperity cannot be permanent. Egypt was once the most enlightened as well as the most fertile country in the world; but this ancient granary has long since been debased to a land of slaves, without a prince of her own, and ground under the yoke of a most galling despotism. Carthage flourished for seven centuries by commerce; but was ultimately blotted from the map of nations. And Cicero, in his Republic, attributes her weakness to her exclusive preference for trade and navigation, instead of agriculture. Great Britain, by combining agriculture and commerce with her manufactures, has outlived the ordinary duration of kingdoms purely manufacturing. But she has well nigh reached her meridian. And as colony after colony separates from her (and which of all of them ultimately will not?) even the land of Cromwell, and Pitt, Peel, Nelson and Wellington, must submit to have *Ilium fuit* inscribed upon her once proud escutcheon.

This is the only nation, ancient or modern, which, from the extent of her sea-coast—the exhaustless fertility of her soil—the variety of her climate, extending through twenty degrees of latitude in the most favored zone, and countless physical advantages, is capable of perpetuity. Whether she is destined to it is a problem which remains to be solved, and which is wisely, perhaps, concealed in the impenetrable veil of futurity. And not only are the United States, as a whole, thus blessed, but many of the individual members of the confederacy, especially the Middle and Southern Atlantic states, have this independent self-existent life within them. They could each constitute a world within themselves. There is scarcely a vegetable, or fruit, or cereal grain, which may not be successfully cultivated in South Carolina and Georgia.

But I go further still, and maintain that that is undoubtedly the most injurious species of traffic which introduces from abroad the same articles which we can produce equally well, or better, ourselves, especially if we are abundantly able to make a sufficient quantity to supply our own consumption. Better to establish cotton, woollen, iron, leather, paper, and all other manufactures, in which we can ultimately equal or surpass others, at great expense to ourselves at the beginning, and apparently even at losing rates, than be permanently dependent on others for them.

If these doctrines are well founded, (and we have great confidence in their soundness,) it is manifest that the South has paid toll from the sweat of her face long enough. Her cotton fields extend from Southern Virginia to the Rio Grande, and embrace ten states, and more than 500,000 square miles, sufficient of itself, perhaps, for the population of the whole earth, if properly managed. An average crop of cotton, in the United States, is usually estimated at 2,300,000 bales, which, at six cents, the average price, is worth 55,000,000 dollars. The same crop, when spun and wove, will bring 180,000,000 dollars, instead of 55,000,000, when sold as raw material. And this immense difference has been nearly all loss to us. Is it not startling? Who doubts that the growers' labor has been greatly sacrificed? Indeed, it has been almost entirely swallowed up in charges. And this process must continue until the producer and consumer—that is, the planter and manufacturer—can be brought nearer together. The planter will always be impoverished, until he ceases to be taxed so enormously for the support of that numerous class who are engaged in the intermediate work of conversion and transportation.

Why, then, should we continue to ship our raw cotton abroad, to be spun and wove and brought back to us to be worn, at an expense four times as great as it would cost to do the same thing at home? And that, too, when we have so many poor in our midst, stinted for food and raiment for want of work. The very idea is preposterous that 200,000 bales of American cotton should be wrought, every year, into yarns in England, and thence transported to Germany, to be converted into fine fabrics, at a gain of twenty millions of dollars to England. Why should we not work up our own cotton into yarns, and transport them in our own ships and sell them to the Germans?

In ancient Rome, five acres was the ordinary size of a farm for the sustenance of a family; and in Flanders now, the same quantity is considered ample for the support of the household, besides affording a considerable surplus for other purposes. And shall South Carolina, comprising within her borders 16,000,000 acres of land, of which only 1,300,000 are cultivated—with as many acres to the man, as there are men to the acres in Europe, continue to be drained forever of her life-blood for foreign flour, Indian corn, oats, peas, potatoes, rye, barley, and almost every other article of consumption? Her consumption of imported iron, exclusive of cutlery, exceeds 2,000,000 dollars per annum; and yet she has inexhaustible quantities of ore of the very best quality. She consumes 2,500,000 dollars worth of leather, four-fifths of which are furnished from abroad; and yet she possesses all the materials necessary for tanning in the utmost profusion. For shoes and boots alone, she expends abroad, yearly, 1,081,709 dollars. Could not this vast sum be kept at home?

Notwithstanding the importance of the subject, owing to the lucid and masterly argument submitted to the public in this place, twelve months since, I do not deem it advisable to occupy much of your time, in demonstrating the capacity of the South to compete successfully with Old or New England, in the manufacture of cotton. When we take into the account the difference in the cost of the raw material in these different markets, the price of labor, fuel, water-power and subsistence, the advantage in favor of the South is tremendous. Indeed, the rapid increase in this branch of business, within the last few years, among us, has demonstrated conclusively the practicability of the matter. If there be a deficiency in skill at present, we are abundantly able to procure it. And the many inducements we offer, when properly understood and appreciated, will bring it to us from abroad, until we have time to rear it up at home. *No bankruptcy has occurred, within my knowledge, in any cotton company at the South. And while seventy-one mills are reported to have stopped, within thirty miles of Providence, Rhode Island, and numerous others have either ceased to run, or are put on short time at the North, on account of the high price of the raw material, or some other cause, some of our companies are declaring a dividend of ten per cent. on the business of the last year.* These facts are sufficient to put to silence all speculations on the subject. Doubt it who may, the South is destined soon to become the seat of the cotton manufactures of the world. The competition has been forced upon us, and our people are beginning to be thoroughly aroused from their apathy.

It has become fashionable of late, just in proportion as cotton mills have multiplied at the South, for northern newspapers and periodicals to abound with essays, the object of which is, to caution the South and West against mistakes and misrepresentations, as to the profits of cotton manufactures. Not that the writers are opposed at all to their extension, but they are concerned, lest amid the powerful impulse that has been given to public opinion and the employment of capital in this business, that we should be tempted in our enthusiasm "to leap in the dark." And, a gentleman of large experience and a thorough practical knowledge, we are assured, of the whole matter, and one who bears a name not altogether unknown to fame, has condescended, through one of the popular magazines, to enlighten his countrymen, by his pen, upon this subject.

Timeo Danaos et dona ferentes.

We fear the Greeks, even when they offer presents. The bitter past has taught us the painful necessity of being on our guard, even against kindness, when thus volunteered. Facts fortify us against these fears. What has covered the rock-bound coast and bleak hills of New-England, in despite of her rugged soil and rigorous climate, with marble mansions, and all that is beautiful in art and comfortable in civilization? Her manufactures in cotton, alone, are computed to have added not less than 300,000,000 dollars to the stock of her wealth within the last thirty-five years.

For the present, we are content for Europe and the North to monopolize the manufacture of prints and lawns, but the irrevocable decree has gone forth, that the South has resolved that the coarser fabrics and yarns are to be wrought here; and that we will do this, not in the spirit of a just retaliation, but in order that our own surplus labor may find employment; that we may make exchanges with India and China for our silks and teas, until we can supply ourselves at home with these articles; with Brazil for our coffee; and with all the rest of the world for the necessaries and luxuries of life, which we are unfitted to produce ourselves; and more especially that we may have a market at our own door for our agricultural products.

We find, that for our agriculture to flourish, we must have a market everywhere; and that it is people and not a place which makes the market; that the nearer this is found to the farmer's door the better; that he is impoverished in spending so much time and money in getting his breadstuffs to distant markets; and that rather than submit to existing evils, we are prepared to import the men and machinery, until we can raise up and qualify the one, and acquire competent skill to construct the other.

The recent developments in England furnish a strong inducement to the South to embark immediately and extensively in the manufacture of coarse cottons and cotton yarns. There is a settled conviction in that country, that with their present and future prospects as to the supply and price of the raw material, their manufactures must run, more than they have done in former years, on finer fabrics; that they must yield the lower numbers of cloths to us, *because we are nearer the material;* and that, consequently, their consumption of raw cottons must tend to *decrease*, rather than *increase*. The same result will be true as to the continent. And it is believed, and, I think, on good authority, that this change will be permanent, and that the falling off in the consumption of raw cotton from this cause alone, will not be less than one-third.

If England and the continent, then, are compelled to retire from the manufacture of coarse cloths, of which the raw material forms so large a portion of the value, not only the manufacture of these fabrics, but the *markets* for them, must be transferred to others. Shall we succeed to them, or sit idle, while the waters are troubled, and see others step in before us?

With our capacity for this business, it would be a burning shame not to avail ourselves of the opening thus presented. A lethargy, which nothing can excuse, will alone deprive us of this advantage. The demand for coarse, heavy, cheap cotton goods, will not only be sustained, but steadily increased, as they shall be substituted for flax and other materials in Russia, Germany, Ireland, and other parts of the world. And in this form, the great bulk of this staple will always be consumed. Let England and the continent, for the present at least, continue to spin yarns, of which the raw material costs but *one-twentieth* of the finished price, and to run spindles that do not produce *two pounds of yarn a quarter;* and the North monopolize, for a few years longer, the calicoes and dimities; but let us at once enter with hearty determination upon the work of using up the body of the crop, in ginghams, checks, osnaburgs, and coarse yarns; and the effect will be, to furnish a better market for the planter, than Liverpool or Lowell, as well as a home market for every description of produce. The trade and commerce of our sea-ports will flourish; our rivers will be rendered navigable; rail-ways and plank-roads and turnpikes constructed, not only to connect the towns and counties together by the internal circulation of trade, but to afford an easy and cheap conveyance to the ocean, at every accessible port.

It is almost impossible to realize the effect of a manufacturing establishment of any sort in fostering the various branches of trade and business, in producing comfort, refinement and intelligence, and in stimulating the growth and populousness of the surrounding country. The evidences abound in every section of the Union, where the experiment has been made. First, the factory goes up; and soon it is surrounded with a beautiful village, with its hundreds, perhaps thousands, of clean, contented and thrifty inhabitants; then comes the hotels, the churches, the schools; next, the machine-shops and mills of every variety, the stores, post office, and, perhaps, finally, the savings bank. Old debts are paid off and litigation dried up, for every body has money and to spare; lands rise in value, from fifty to one hundred per cent., in the neighborhood; for there is a market not only for grain, and articles which will bear transportation, though at a ruinous loss to the producer, but for heavy articles, that will not admit of transportation, and also for every cucumber, cabbage, and quart of milk, that can be spared. It was published in the papers, during the past summer, that one of the large hotels in the city of New-York consumed daily, besides bushels of berries, twelve hundred eggs, five hundred quarts of milk, and from five hundred to a thousand pounds of beef. Now, every manufacturing establishment is an *Astor* or an *Irving House* to the surrounding population. Let, then, the cotton mill and the cotton field, and that most formidable of all trios, and most holy of all alliances, "the plough, the loom and the anvil," be brought together.

Who can estimate the good the founders of one of these establishments has done to his species? How many politicians render equal service to the state? Such men may not have a place on the page of history with the conquerors of Mexico, but posterity will rank them with the benefactors of mankind. The friends of free trade are said to have made to Mr. Cobden, its great advocate and champion, a donation of near a million of dollars; and I rejoice at the precedent. It is high time that fortunes and honors should be bestowed on those who have taught successfully the arts of peace—the true criterion of national glory—as well as upon military chieftains. The day is not distant—and I rejoice at the fact—when the highest distinctions will be conferred on those who have done most to multiply the means of subsistence, and to impart them to the rapidly increasing millions of the human family.

And was there ever such a people as the Americans for boldness of conception and indomitable perseverance? Their minds partake of the rivers, water-falls, and mountain scenery of the country. Every individual aspires to be the founder of a city, the conqueror or lawgiver of a nation—a Romulus, Cortez, or Solon. And there is not a pettifogger, who has fled the country for debt or crime, that cannot construct a wiser constitution than the immortal John Locke framed for the *province* of South Carolina. Nor is it true that covetousness alone begets this spirit of adventure. It would be folly to deny that the men who thus embark with their time, and talents, and fortune, look to remuneration. Still, there is much patriotism and philanthropy mixed up with all these enterprises. These pioneers rejoice in the thought, that they are not working for themselves alone, but are aiding in laying, broad and deep, the foundations of a glorious empire; and that they are assisting, in the best possible mode, in feeding the hungry, clothing the naked, and giving eyes to the intellectually blind.

But it is objected, that these manufacturing establishments will become the hot-beds of crime, where it will shoot up in alarming luxuriance, to corrupt and destroy the public morals. But I am by no means ready to concede that our poor, degraded, half-fed, half-clothed, and ignorant population, without Sabbath-schools, or any other kind of instruction—mental or moral—or without any just appreciation of the value of character, will be injured by giving them employment, which will bring them under the oversight of employers, who will inspire them with self-respect, by taking an interest in their welfare. My own personal experience and observation are directly the reverse of the opinion which I am combating; and I could state many interesting facts, in corroboration of the belief which I entertain. After all, the most powerful motives to good conduct, is to give suitable encouragement to labor, and to bestow proper rewards upon meritorious industry.

Did time permit, I should take great pleasure in urging upon my fellow-citizens the propriety of engaging extensively in various other industrial pursuits; believing confidently, as I do, from careful investigation, as well as upon the experience of the most enlightened and practical men, both in the feasibility and profitableness of these branches of industry.

Is there any good reason why the leather and shoe business should not be extensively prosecuted at the South? It ranks as the fourth, after cotton, wool and iron, in Great Britain; and it is questionable if it be not superior to the latter, even there. In this country, it holds a still higher rank; and we have a *natural* guaranty that this business never can become unfashionable, or be overdone. With our forests for bark, and facilities for conducting this branch of manufacture advantageously, why, I would earnestly inquire, should it not be undertaken at once? All the experiments hitherto made at the South have proved eminently successful. All that we lack is a few Zadock Pratts, to lead in this business. When we reflect to what a variety of uses leather is applied, in the implements of war, husbandry, and the mechanic arts, the structure of machinery, the furniture of houses, articles of clothing, books, hats, caps, harness and carriages, there is no single material, it has been truly remarked, except cotton, which is so much needed, or needed in so much plenty. Without it, or without it in the plenty which we have it, what would the world do? What a wide field for commercial enterprise—to exchange our cotton goods for the raw hides of Texas, Mexico, and South America!

I have no means at hand of ascertaining the value of the leather and shoe manufactures in the United States. In England, it is estimated at upwards of 60,000,000 of dollars; and it is computed that more than 250,000 persons are employed in its various departments. And it is in the way here detailed, that she has built up Manchester, Birmingham, Leeds, Sheffield, and scores of other towns, constructed her India docks, and other commercial wonders, which overshadow, by comparison, the proudest monuments erected by ancient kings and emperors.

The iron and paper business, and sheep-husbandry, to pass over all other commodities, for which our climate and invaluable resources are so admirably adapted, have been too long overlooked and neglected. As it respects wool, it has been triumphantly shown, that millions might and ought to be realized at the South from this one article; whether we consider the health and longevity of the sheep, the texture and weight of the fleece, the cheapness of subsistence, or the great profits which would result to this section, from this business; that we can compete successfully at it, if not outstrip any other region of the country.

ART VI.—THE LATE HENRY A. BULLARD.

SEVERAL years ago, when publishing the various documents appertaining to the Historical Society of this state, we introduced in our pages some extracts from an eulogium, pronounced by Judge Bullard upon the Hon. F. Zavier Martin, President of the Society. Judge Bullard having since paid the debt of nature, occupying the same position, we feel that it is but just to his memory, associated as it is with so large a part of the History of Louisiana, to incorporate the following biographical sketch, prepared by our friend, V. H. Ivy, Esq., at the instance of the law graduates of the University. Neither Mr. Ivy nor ourselves agree with the political tenets held by Judge Bullard; but find nothing in that to militate against our high appreciation of his learning, his talents, and his constant and unwavering services to the state. The gloom of the grave covers up every honest difference, and leaves in our hearts but the vivid memory of the scholar—the jurist—and the man.—[EDITOR.

Mr. Bullard was born in the town of Pepperell, in the State of Massachusetts, on the 9th day of Sept., 1788. His father was a clergyman of the Presbyterian order of Christians; and on the mother's side he was closely connected with the distinguished family of the Adamses, whose deeds were so conspicuous in our revolutionary war, and whose name is identified with the history of the republic.

At a suitable age he entered Harvard University, and graduated in the class of 1808. He attained here, not only the most distinguished honors which that institution could confer, but acquired all the learning which it could impart; and in the rudimental and classical education which he here obtained, he not only laid the foundation of his subsequent extensive political, legal and general information, as well as pure taste and correct judgment, but also formed the habit, which attended him through life, of laborious and unremitting application. His family being possessed of limited means, he remained about the college for two or three years after he graduated, and some of this time acting as usher in the institution, yet always studying and perfecting himself in classical literature, and in the modern languages, especially in the French and Spanish. At a later period he acquired a knowledge of the German and Italian languages.

Leaving here, he came to Philadelphia, where he read and studied the common law in the offices of David Paul Brown and David Ingersoll, who was a contemporary of Rawle, Lewis and Dallas, then the greatest luminaries of the Philadelphia bar; and in due time he was admitted to practice his profession. We now find him, at the most critical period of his life, a young man of vigorous mind, with a liberal education—with such a legal preparation as we may suppose he would have under the auspices of Brown and Ingersoll—full of the high hopes and aspirations which the fame and example of such men would excite; and yet, without influential relations and friends to give him the first impulse, without which so many of the noblest and best so frequently fall into despair. About this time Mexico was in revolution against Spain. The spirit which had accomplished the independence of our own country, was convulsing Mexico like a troubled sea. The Spanish monarchy had become more intolerable than ever under the order of things effected by the power of the great Napoleon. Hidalgo and Morales had given the ball of revolution a mighty impetus; the whole country was in arms; Mexican patriots could look to the people of no country for such kind sympathy as to the people of the states of this Union. And here they *did* find that sympathy which our countrymen never withhold from the subjects of despotism.

Toledo, one of the Mexican revolutionary generals, was at this time in Philadelphia, seeking recruits, and such means as he could, to sustain the cause of the patriots. Where could he find one better adapted to his purposes than the young Bullard? His knowledge of the Spanish language introduced him to that officer. His ardent and daring soul, and his classically stored mind, chafed with the desire of activity in that splendid arena of talent—the Philadelphia bar; yet it chafed in vain. Thus anxious, yet restrained, he was fascinated with the splendid pictures painted by the imaginative mind of the Spanish revolutionary soldier. Can we wonder what was his course? He joined Toledo. His energetic character and full education so strongly recommended him to that officer, that he placed him on his staff, and made him his military secretary and aid-de-camp. He proceeded with the general to the western country, and passed most of the winter of '12 and '13 in Nashville. In the spring, he accompanied the recruits down the river to Natchitoches. They soon after entered the Mexican territories, and joined other patriots, who were assisting the people to throw off the Spanish yoke, and establish a republican government. The country at this time was in full revolution. Several hard battles had been fought, and the Spanish forces, sorely defeated, had mostly retired. Aredondo had command at San Antonio and the vicinity; he was dislodged from his position and driven back. Don Bernardo Gutierez, with Cols. Kemper and Perry, commanded the patriot forces. When Toledo came with his reinforcement, he was appointed to the chief command. Young Bullard was high in the favor of the commander-in-chief, and intimately connected with him in the capacity of aid-de-camp and secretary. Aredondo was preparing to meet the republican forces. The Spanish troops rallied under him, and on the 13th of August, 1813, a general engagement was brought on near San Antonio. It was soon ascertained that the forces under Toledo, composed of new recruits, refused to co-operate, and the defection was discovered in the ranks. This portended defeat to the patriots; and, indeed, after some hard fighting, a retreat commenced, which soon became general. Toledo and his followers had to retire before the Spanish veterans. This broke up the expedition; and the Americans who had joined him returned to the United States. Bullard, with a few of his companions in arms, reached the American frontiers, after encountering many hardships and dangers, and came to Natchitoches, destitute and worn down with fatigue and sickness.

Here he paused: he found himself destitute, and in a strange country, without a single friend able to help him. His brightest hopes were blighted: his wildest and fondest dreams dispelled: his high aspirations checked. The beautiful fabric of name and fortune, which his fine mind and hopeful heart had built, lay a wreck at his feet. Though despair assailed, it did not conquer him. Adversity is a terrible tyrant; its blows are overpowering and remorseless when aimed at the weak; but when it wrestles with a man like Bullard, and puts forth its mightiest efforts to subdue, it only fires the soul, and nerves the arm, and makes him a conqueror.

Mr. Bullard had now to commence his career anew: his education and his talents were the only means left him. With these he sustained the severe but triumphant struggle with the adverse circumstances which surrounded him. He opened a law office; and his knowledge of the French and Spanish languages soon enabled him to become acquainted with the leading and most influential citizens of that ancient town of Louisiana. They were nearly all of French and Spanish origin: the town itself having been originally settled by the Spanish. They were hospitable, and mostly wealthy; and that section of the country was then the most flourishing portion of the state.

He had, on completing his education, studied the elements of the Roman civil law, and had assiduously applied himself to the study of our civil law. As nearly as possible, he made himself master of the Napoleon code, and the Louisiana code of 1808; and was familiar with the leading authors on the civil law, Domat, Pothier, Toullier, Merlin, Sirey, and others. With this capital, in a rich community, and speaking the language of the people, he attained their confidence; and his business increased until he had even more than he could attend to. And though continually in the discharge of a practical, laborious and exhausting business, he never forgot nor neglected the classics, history and literature, and the more abstruse studies of his profession.

We now find him about to realize the fortune to which he had never ceased to look forward. He now married; and from this marriage there were five children—two sons and three daughters, who are all living. The parents possessed no wealth at the marriage; yet, at one time since, they had amassed a considerable fortune. The children were all well educated, and well provided for in their youth.

Having devoted the latter half of his life to public affairs, his pecuniary matters suffered, and the ample fortune which he had accumulated in the earlier part, became much embarrassed.

He had not been long at the bar in Louisiana, before he was appointed one of the district judges, which office he held about three years, when he resigned it to resume his practice. In 1822, he was elected to the legislature of Louisiana, and served for two years. In April, 1826, he was again appointed to the judgeship of the sixth district court of the state, which he filled until the 1st of July, 1830, when he resigned, and was elected to the Congress of the United States from the western district of Louisiana.

While on the bench, even as district judge, his decisions cast much light on the jurisprudence of the state. He was in the constant habit of investigating every legal question arising in the civil law as administered in Louisiana. His great learning well suited him for this, and his habits of industry and legal inquiry and research were laborious and unremitting; judicial labor was more severe then than now. Our system of jurisprudence had not then been elucidated by the searching and thorough investigations of the great jurists who have since spent so much time and study upon it, and who have left the results of their labors in our reports.

As a member of Congress, Judge Bullard was active and efficient: he took a lively interest in the exciting topics of the day. The tariff measure of '32, then caused much agitation, and almost shook the Union to its centre. Some of the Southern states were on the point of resistance to the law creating it. In the conscientious discharge of his duty, Judge Bullard maintained a consistent and decisive course, and displayed the talent of a learned and firm mind: he strongly advocated a tariff extending protection to manufactures of the United States, and especially that sugar should be so protected, as well as cotton fabrics. And though differing in opinion on this material question from many, he deserved and obtained the respect of all for the able manner in which he supported and enforced his own convictions.

In 1832 he was re-elected to Congress; and while in this Congress, was appointed by Gov. Roman, then Governor of Louisiana, one of the judges of the Supreme Court of this state, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the election of Judge Porter to the Senate of the United States.

Probably no man in our state has ever contributed more to the elucidation of our system of jurisprudence than Judge Porter; the correctness of his decisions was never questioned: indeed, they hav ever been received by our bench and bar with unqualified respect, and referred to with unhesitating confidence—a man whose talents and probity dignified the place which he held, and who received no additional glory from the position. To fill the place of such a man, no ordinary jurist was required; it needed a man of energy, of close application, of extensive information: and accordingly Judge Bullard was appointed in his place on the 4th day of February, 1834. He performed the duties of the office with signal ability, until on the 5th of February, 1839, near the first of the second term of Governor Roman, he was appointed Secretary of State for the State of Louisiana.

It would seem then to have been a matter of some difficulty to get a suitable person to fill the place of Judge Bullard on the Supreme bench. Judge Martin, who had been on the Supreme bench for twenty-four years previously, and was for seven years subsequently, declared that his place could not be filled; and at the warm solicitation of the presiding judge and the bar, he resigned the office of Secretary of State on the 17th December, 1839, and on the same day was re-appointed to the Supreme bench, and continued actively to discharge his high and onerous duties, notwithstanding his physical infirmities, which for many years seriously annoyed him, and which now had much increased. His opinions, delivered from the Supreme bench, are models of judicial eloquence: they display the legal learning of the eminent jurist, and the classic style of the scholar.

He remained on the Supreme bench until, on the remodeling of the judiciary under the present Constitution of our state in the year '46, the old bench was entirely superseded, and a new one formed. Judge Bullard, with his brother judges, now retired to private life. He had not been long in this retirement when he was called upon to pronounce a funeral discourse on the life and character of the venerable Judge Martin. In that discourse, how encouraging a moral he drew from the eventful life of the revered jurist—of the blind old man! Was he conscious how he himself was a living illustration of the truth of his words?

The judge now returned to the practice of the law, at the New-

Orleans bar, and was consulted and employed in many very important and difficult law cases.

In the year 1847 he was appointed professor of the civil law, in the university of this state; but delivered only two courses of lectures. He prepared a course of very able lectures, adapted to his professorship. They were replete with learning and research in the Roman civil law, as modified and practised in Louisiana. He traced the history of our system of jurisprudence through its various branches, up to its fountains in the constitutions of the first kings of Rome, the twelve tables, the Prætorian edicts. The opinions of the learned men, the decrees of the Roman senate, and the laws of the people of Rome; how in its crude, chaotic state, it was codified by Theodosius, and afterwards by Justinian. He pursued this subject as a poet pursues a wild and beautiful idea, repeating with enthusiasm the words of D'Aguesseau, that "the proud destinies of Rome were not yet accomplished. She reigns throughout the world by her reason, after having ceased to reign by her authority."

In 1850 he was elected to fill a vacancy in our state legislature; and in September of the same year, was elected a member of the 31st Congress, to fill the place made vacant by the resignation of C. M. Conrad, who was appointed Secretary of War. Judge Bullard returned to Congress after an absence of sixteen years, and served out the last session; and although weighed down by his physical infirmities, he took an active interest in all the exciting topics and measures which were agitated and acted on during the session. He was seldom out of his place, and voted to the last day and night of the session on all questions and laws which came up. During the session, he also appeared in, and argued several important law cases in the Supreme Court of the United States. He was retained in several more which are not yet tried. Notwithstanding his continuous and active occupations, public and private, Judge Bullard, in connection with Judge Curry, has made a digest of the laws of the state, embracing all the statutes of Louisiana of a general nature, from the territorial legislature in 1805, to that of the state in 1841. It was never completed. A second volume was intended, but at the time it ought to have appeared, a law passed calling a state convention to form a new constitution. As the adoption of this constitution would necessarily change and abrogate many of the most important laws, all idea of publishing a second volume was abandoned. Since then, a "state commission" has been appointed to frame a digest.

Judge Bullard was also an active, and perhaps one of the most efficient members of the Historical Society of Louisiana. This society, formed in 1835, had slept some ten years, until it was awakened by the assiduous exertions of Mr. De Bow,* in 1845, when Judge Bullard was selected to deliver the introductory lecture before it. He was afterwards, on the death of Judge Martin, elected President of the Society, and until his death, on the 17th April, 1851, held the place, which has not yet been filled. Indeed, it is much to be regretted, that an institution which might be of so much advantage and glory to the state, should be allowed by our citizens to linger thus, and perhaps entirely to decline.

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* John Perkins, Esq., did quite as much in this matter as ourselves, and has subsequently done much more. (Ed.)

As a jurist, Judge Bullard was profound, but comprehensive and clear, and the records of his labors are daily pondered over and recited by the members of his profession, in his digest and in the reports of the state. As a politician, he had the confidence of his constituents. As a speaker, he was generally plain and didactic, but always condensed, explicit, and comprehensive; full of deep and practical thought; and his language unexceptionably chaste and classical. And sometimes he would indulge in beautiful and appropriate figures.

As the practical lawyer and stern teacher, he was morose and afflicted, during the last half of his life, by disease, and his manner superficially harsh and even petulant; yet, they who have known him for a long time, and well, and who have had the pleasure of his friendly intimacy, bear testimony that he was not destitute of the kinder and gentler feelings of our nature. His heart, though embittered and seared by circumstances, when touched, vibrated with sweet and mournful sadness. Who does not recognize the music of feeling, when singing the requiem of the gifted Prentiss, the old man said, with tears, and with this we must close his own brief biography:

> "Who would have thought that I, whose career is ended—that I, whose sands are fast dropping away—that I, with my age and physical infirmities—I, whose children no longer require a father's solicitude, should have survived to pay this feeble tribute to his memory; while he, the young, the noble-hearted, the gifted—in the fullness of his fame and usefulness—sinks into an early grave? How inscrutable are the ways of Providence!"

ART. VII.—THE STATE OF ALABAMA.*

In the preparation of our series of papers upon the states, which already includes nearly all of the southern and western, we have been deferring *Alabama* until the appearance of the work of Albert J. Pickett, Esq., which we knew to be in preparation, and which has for several years engrossed his almost entire attention. This work being now before the public, the occasion is a fit one to take up the subject, in the discussion of which we shall be greatly aided by the possession of a large amount of material which has been for some time accumulating upon our hands.

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* 1. History of Alabama, and Incidentally of Georgia and Mississippi, from the Earliest Period. By Albert James Pickett, of Montgomery. 2 vols. Charleston: Walker and James. 1851. Third edition.
2. Gayarre's History of Louisiana, French and English, 1846 and 1851.
3. The Lily and the Totem, by Wm. Gilmore Simms, of South Carolina. 1851.
4. History of South Carolina, by the same.

There are no men in the country who deserve such high and distinguished praise for the zeal, energy, and enthusiasm, which have characterized their labors in gathering together, and embodying in the most attractive forms, the scattering legends, and almost inaccessible historical data locked up in musty folios, relating to the settlement and early development of the souther and southwestern states, as Wm. Gilmore Simms, of South Carolina, Charles Gayarre, of Louisiana, and Col. Pickett, of Alabama. These gentlemen have rescued southern literature from the charge of degrading subserviency and dependence upon that of other regions, and demonstrated that, whilst we have been looking abroad for the records of lofty daring, chivalrous adventure, heroic and terrible struggles with man and with nature, in the most untoward and trying of all possible positions; and more than all, for the true poetry and romance of actual history, on the soil of the South, and under our very eyes, yet long forgotten or neglected, exist the materials of attractive and almost inexhaustible literature! And it is not claiming too much for these gentlemen to say, that they have demonstrated the capacityof southern intellect to cull and combine these materials, and present them in a anner which would do honor to the authorship of any portion of the Union.

It is not claimed for Mr. Pickett that he is a practised writer, weaving the flowers of rhetoric on the rigid canons of the masters of the art, or handling the argumentative portions of his work with the dialectical skill and logical subtilty of writers who have made literature and authorship the study and occupation of a life-time. His work seems rather to be what he tells us he intended it, one in which the mere completeness and elaboration of picture are made subservient to the demands of truthful and minute narrative. In the treatment of his subjects, he has aimed only at simplicity of style, fullness of detail, perspicuity, and, as far as possible, the most entire accuracy in every particular. If he has erred at any point, the pains and the labor to be correct have never been stinted; and he well appeals to the people of the Southwest to reciprocate these labors by a generous reception of the work.

In treating of Alabama, the work of Mr. Pickett will be a prominent text, and we shall introduce many passages from it, in which the author has happily embodied the striking events in the lives of the early explorers, the manners, customs and habits of the aboriginal inhabitants, and of those who subsequently dispossessed them, and constitute the progenitors of the present race that occupy and rule the state.

The materials for Col. Pickett's history were collected by him from many sources. His father removed to Alabama in 1818, the son being but eight years of age. The Creek Indians inhabited the neighborhood of his residence, forming the playmates of his childhood, and for twenty years afterwards his acquaintances, when visiting in their nation. He was also thrown into the company of many old white men, called Indian countrymen, who had conducted commerce among these people in some cases as far back as the revolutionary war. Many of them had intermarried with the Indians. From interviews with such, he collected the most interesting traditions. He "conversed with the chiefs under the shades of the spreading mulberry and walnut upon the banks of the beautiful Tallapoosa." For the later periods, the memories of the elder inhabitants are taxed, who were in some instances visited after journeys of several hundred miles. The statements of the Creek general, McGillivray, and the manuscripts of the half-breed, Stiggins; the contributions of Garcellaso, Biedma, and the gentleman of Elvas; the work of Theodore Irving, and the sketches of Alexander Meek, Le Moyne's Florida, Milford's History of the Creeks, the manuscripts of Claiborne, the volumes of Martin, Monette, Gayarre, public and official documents, newspapers, &c., are all made to contribute their quota towards the completion of this most interesting and instructive narrative.

The thrilling and romantic, yet terribly fatal adventures of De Soto, introduced the European for the first time to the wilds of Alabama. After a long and disastrous march through Florida and Alabama, the once splendid cavalcade of this heroic yet fatal chieftain arrived by the waters of the beautiful Coosa. The far-famed province of this name extended over three hundred miles, and embraced the present counties of Cherokee, Benton, Talladega and Coosa. The chief of Coosa met the warrior riding in a chair, supported upon the backs of several of his people in great state, and extended to him the hospitalities of the town. He even invited the Spaniards to settle in the country, professing a friendship which covered and concealed the most deadly and implacable hostility. From Coosa the expedition advanced towards the Tallapoosa, and eventually to the town of Tallasse. Crossing the Tallapoosa, it advanced towards the residence of the chief, Tuscaloosa, whose son had been dispatched to invite De Soto into his extensive dominions. The haughty chief received the Spaniards without the least expression of admiration or surprise, though with apparent cordiality. His speech was a model of laconic eloquence, and the interview is supposed to have taken place in the present county of Montgomery. The expedition reached soon after the banks of the Alabama, where a fatal disease broke out in the camp, which is said to have been avoided by those who used in their food the ashes of a weed recommended by the Indians. The Mobilian chief was retained in a condition of semi-captivity, but found means with his leading men to plot the destruction of the party of De Soto, which had reached his capital, *Maubilia*. (Mr. Pickett supposes it to have been on the north bank of the Alabama, at a place now called Choctaw Bluffs, about twenty-five miles above the confluence of the Alabama and the Tombigby.) The description of this town is interesting.

"It stood by the side of a large river, upon a beautiful plain; and consisted of eighty handsome houses, each capacious enough to contain a thousand men. They all fronted a large public square. They were encompassed by a high wall, made of immense trunks of trees, set deep in the ground and close together, strengthened with cross-timbers, and with large vines. A thick mud plaster, resembling handsome masonry, concealed the wood work; while port holes were abundant, together with towers capable of containing eight men each, at the distance of fifty paces apart. The eastern and western gate opened into the town."

At this place the savages openly threw off the mask, and precipitated themselves upon De Soto, in one of the most terrible and disastrous battles recorded in the annals of history. Ten thousand Mobilians were in arms, with desperate frenzy, and determined, at one blow, to annihilate the ranks of the insolent invaders of their soil. Prodigies of valor were exhibited upon both sides. The Indians fought in the streets or on the house-tops, and even when hewed down in fearful numbers, uttered no cry for quarter.

"The battle, which now waxed hotter and more sanguinary than ever, cannot be as graphically described as the heroic deeds on either side deserve. Often the Indians drove the troops out of the town, and as often they returned with increased desperation. Near the wall lay a large pool of delicious water, fed by many springs. It was now discolored with blood. Here soldiers fell down to slake the intense thirst created by heat and wounds; and those who were able rose again, and once more pitched into a combat, characterized by the most revolting destruction of human life. For some time the young females joined in the fight, and they now contended, side by side, with the foremost warriors, sharing the indiscriminate slaughter. Heated with excitement, smarting with his wounds, and provoked with the unsubdued fierceness of the natives, De Soto rushed out alone by the gate, threw himself into his saddle, and charged the town; calling, in a loud voice, upon "Our Lady and Sântiago," he forced his charger over hundreds of fighting men and women, followed by the brave Wuno Tobar. While opening lanes through the savage ranks, and sprinkling his tracks with blood, he rose, on one occasion, to throw his lance into a gigantic warrior; at that instant a powerful winged arrow went deep into the bottom of his thigh. Unable to extract it or to sit in his saddle, he continued to fight until the end of the battle, standing in his stirrups. Everywhere that mighty son of Spain now gorged upon Alabama blood. His fearless bounds filled the boldest soldiers with renewed courage.

" At length the houses were set on fire; and the wind blew the smoke and flames in all directions, adding horror to the scene. The flames ascended in mighty volume! The sun went down, hiding himself from the awful sight! Manbilia was in ruins, and her inhabitants destroyed!"

In this battle, which lasted nine hours, eighty-two Spaniards were slain, or died afterwards from wounds, and forty-five horses perished, an irreparable loss in their condition. The camp equipage, baggage, clothes, medicine, books, armor, pearls, flour and wine, were consumed in the flames of the burning town. The Mobilians were almost entirely annihilated, their slain being estimated, in one account, at 2,500; and in another, at 11,000. The fate of the chief, Tuscaloosa, is involved in doubt.

De Soto had been expecting the vessels of Maldinado to arrive at Pensacola, and learned at Manbilia that they had actually arrived. Notwithstanding this, and the knowledge of a conspiracy among some of the leaders in the camp, to abandon his fortunes, he came to the sudden and desperate resolution, in the crippled and forlorn condition of his followers, to turn his back upon the shipping, and plunge again into the forests of the north. With daring intrepidity he braved the conspirators, and by the mastery of a will and an intelligence, before which the proudest of them were accustomed to bow, he defeated their schemes, whilst yet only in the bud. Thus is it that great natures rise superior to every fortune, making man and the elements alike, and in defiance of rebellious inclinations, subservient to their bidding. Never was a stronger illustration, than that of the heroic De Soto, after the disasters of Manbilia, and in the dense and almost interminable forests of Alabama!

Crossing the Warrior, and interrupted by daily struggles with powerful parties of savages, the expedition reached the Tombigby, near the county of Lowndes, in the state of Mississippi. The chief of Chickasa met them here, and engaged De Soto to assist him in some of his hostile movements against a neighboring tribe. Quarrels between the Spaniards and the Indians, growing out of the cruelty and oppressions of the former and the cupidity of the latter, soon led to a general outbreak, and an engagement, scarcely less sanguinary and disastrous in its effects than that of Manbilia.

The subsequent fate of De Soto may be briefly told. After the bloody battle of Alabama, which was on the Yazoo River, in the county of Tallahatchie, he crossed the Mississippi, being the first, except, perhaps, De Vaca, to discover its waters—spent a year in wanderings through Arkansas—returning to the Mississippi at the town of Guachaya, below the mouth of the Arkansas River. Here death ended the chapter of his misfortunes, and left to history to emblazon his fame, as one of the bravest captains and most extraordinary adventurers that the world has ever known. He sleeps beneath the waters of that great river, which had never before been disturbed by the voices of civilized man, but which has since ministered to the wants of millions and millions of a race more hardy, energetic and adventurous, than even the Spaniard himself!

"With smiling lips," says Mr. Gayarre, "and serene brow, he cheers his companions, and swears them, one by one, to bear allegiance, in his hands, to Muscoso de Alvarado, whom he designated as his successor. 'Union and perseverance, my friends,' said he, 'as long as the breath of life animates your bodies. Do not falter in the enterprise. Spain expects a richer harvest of glory, and more ample domains from her children.' These are his last words, and then he dies. Blest be the soul of the noble knight, and of the true Christian! Rest his immortal remains in peace within that oaken trunk, scooped by his companions, and by them sunk many fathoms deep in the bed of the Mississippi!"

The aborigines of the Southwest and of Florida are considered by Mr. Pickett as having one common character; and he has furnished several illustrations, taken from the engravings in the work of Le Moyne. They wore mantles of bark and flax interwoven, ornaments of shell, etc., and in their towns were storehouses, filled with garments of hemp, feathers of every hue, deer, panther, martin, and bear skins, packed away in baskets. They strung pearls from the rivers, and shells around their arms, necks and legs. The chiefs painted their skins in stripes, or punctured with needles and a blackened pigment. Plumes of the eagle feather adorned the head. Their weapons of war, in addition to the bow and arrow, were shields of wood or hides, wooden spears pointed with flint, wooden swords and herculean clubs. The declaration of war was made by sticking arrows in the enemy's roads with locks of hair attached. The chief, surrounded by his men, raised the war cry, which was answered by a thousand voices; he implored victory from the sun, and sprinkled water, in emblem of the enemy's blood, which was soon to flow. The oracular responses of the people were invoked. The wife of a slain warrior might only marry again after her hair, which she had cut off and sprinkled over his grave, had attained its usual length.

In laying out a town, the Indians first erected a mound, on which was placed the house of the chief and his family. At the foot was a square fronted by the residences of the lesser chiefs. The wigwams of the common people came next in order, etc. The houses were of timber, covered with palm, and straw or reeds. In the colder latitudes, they were daubed with clay, and summer and winter residences were provided. The chief's house was in one instance 120 feet by 40, and included small buildings like offices. A remarkable temple was found upon the Savannah River at the present Silver Bluff. The length was 100 and the breadth 40 feet. The walls were proportionately high, and the roof covered with a carpeting of split cane. Beautiful plumes, shells and pearls, were suspended on the inside. The entrance was by three gates, guarded by gigantic and threatening wooden statues, whilst statues of men and women were arrayed around the hill. By the walls were boxes containing the remains of dead chiefs. Chests of valuable pearls, skins, etc., were arranged in the centre, with mantles of feathers, etc. In a storehouse near by was contained copper pikes, bows, arrows, shields, etc., and other implements of warfare.

The Indians planted peas, beans, pumpkins, corn, etc. They made cakes of persimmons, and dug the earth with fish bones, puncturing it with canes for the seed. West of the Mississippi they made fine earthenware and salt. Their canoes were often of the most exquisite workmanship and finish, and were marshalled into fleets. They worshiped the sun, and venerated the moon and certain of the stars, and even the chief, by the cruel sacrifice of the first born male child. The doctor cured his patient by sucking out the blood and spurting it into a bowl from which nursing women were accustomed to drink, if the subject were young and athletic. Sometimes the patient was smoked with tobacco and weeds to produce perspiration.

Should the reader desire to become more familiar with the manners and customs of the southern Indians, and more especially of that extraordinary people, the Natchez, he will find the fullest details in the work of Mr. Gayarre, to which we refer him. The third lecture of the second part of this work is one of the most graphic and eloquent, and deeply interesting contributions to Indian history anywhere to be met with. Indeed, we have often desired to extract it entire in our pages.

At the time of De Soto, Alabama was inhabited by the Cooeas, Tallasses, Mobilians and Choctaws. Being nearly destroyed by his invasion, their places were filled by the Muscogees and Alabamas, who were of Mexican origin, and were driven out of that country by Cortez. Wandering a long time in the wilderness, the Muscogees reached at last and settled upon the banks of the Ohio, almost to the Wabash. They had previously met and vanquished the Alabamas, driving them to the Yazoo, whence they again drove them to the shores of the Alabama, near the confluence of the Coosa and the Tallapoosa. Further pressed by the warlike Muscogees, the unfortunate Alabamas were dispersed a third time, and sought an asylum among the Choctaws and other tribes, whilst the Muscogees overspread Georgia to the banks of the Savannah. Receiving at last into their bosom the relics of the Alabamas, the Tookabatches, the Tuskegees, who were allowed to occupy the forks of the Coosa and the Tallapoosa, the Ozeallies, the Uchees, and fugitives of the Natchez, after the terrible massacre of the French, the Muscogee confederacy increased in strength and power until it became the most formidable in all the country, receiving the name of CREEK, from the number of beautiful rivers and streams meandering through its limits.

The authorities relied upon by Mr. Pickett for this Indian history are the work of Le Clerc Milfort, who long lived among the Creeks, having married the sister of McGillivray, their great chieftain; the work of Hawkins; Adair's History of the Indians; the Notes of Mr. Compere, a Missionary among the Creeks; several old manuscripts and conversations with old settlers and traders. The Big Warrior, in 1822, confirmed the accounts to Mr. Compere: "My ancestors were a mighty people. After they reached the waters of the Alabama, and took possession of the country, they went further—conquered the tribes upon the Chattahoochie, and upon all the rivers from thence to the Savannah—yes, and even whipped the Indians then living in the territory of South Carolina, and wrested much of their country from them."

We have only space to note a few of the peculiarities of the Creeks. Before the consummation of marriage, it was necessary that the husband should have built a house, produced and gathered a crop, made a hunt and brought home game, and tendered the whole to the girl; a good rule, which our civilized race might very well adopt. Divorce was *ad libitum*, and both could marry again, though the woman only after the green corn dance was over. Marriage gave no right over the possessions of the wife, or the children she might have. Adultery was punished with many stripes, whoever was the guilty party, the friends inflicting them, also cutting off the ears, nose, etc., and tearing out the woman's hair. When Bartram visited the nation in 1777, he found fifty towns, containing 11,000 inhabitants, the Muscogee being the national tongue. The general council was always held in the principal town, and was held annually, though each town had its separate legislative system, like the federal system under which we live. The walls of the public buildings were daubed with rude paintings and sculptures, which were as significant as writing. The green corn dance, a great national festival, is minutely described by Col. Hawkins, whom Mr. Pickett copies at length. The martial arrangements of the Creeks were peculiar. The great chief, on the opening of war, stuck up in public places a partly red stick, and sent to each subordinate as many pieces of sticks as days that must elapse before his presenting himself for service. These latter called up the warriors with the drum, informed them of the rallying place, and the combatants were chosen from those who were the first to arrive, it being some disgrace to arrive too late, to fill up the required number. The warriors then took the "medicine of war," and were supplied by their wives with little bags of parched corn, two ounces being sufficient to make a quart of broth, and satisfy a man for twenty-four hours. This medicine of war was a liquor supposed to possess a virtue in guarding the drinker from all dangers. The "great medicine" secured entire invulnerability, whilst the "little medicine" only diminished the extent of danger. Being purgatives, they may be supposed to have had some slight effect in lessening the danger of wounds. In their marches, each warrior placed his foot in the print of the warrior before him, so as to conceal a knowledge of their numbers, and the last of the party carefully concealed even that print.

Col. Pickett devotes a chapter to the history of the Choctaws, Chickasas and Cherokees. The two former were descended from the Chickemicaws, early emigrants from Mexico, (according to Adair,) who crossed the Mississippi, and inhabited the regions of the Yazoo, the Tombigbee and the Alabama. This account of their origin the Choctaws had lost, believing they had emerged originally from a big hole in a great mound on the road from St. Stephens, in Alabama, to Jackson, Mississippi. The Cherokees were original settlers of Virginia and Carolina, and can be traced no further, having been driven westward by the whites.

Various relics of the aborigines still exist upon the soil of Alabama. The mounds, though attributed by some to an origin anterior to that of the Indians, our author thinks are clearly the work of their hands. It is known positively that the Natchez constructed them as late as 1730. In Alabama they are found upon the Tennessee, Coosa, Tallapoosa, Alabama, Cahaba, Warrior, and Tombigby rivers; and upon being opened, are found to contain bones, stone ornaments, pottery, and sometimes copper and silver ornaments, layers of charcoal, ashes, etc. The practice of erecting a tumulus or mound over the dead has been common to most countries. In some cases, piles of stones were adopted instead, which perhaps accounts for their appearance in many parts of Georgia and Alabama. The ditches which have been discovered at Cahaba, at the falls of Little River, etc., are also thought by Mr. Pickett to be of Indian origin, contrary to the general belief of writers, and intended for purposes of defence. He thinks, at Cahaba there existed an Indian establishment, fortified with palisades, and that the ditch was cut around them. The ditch at Talladega Springs, which formerly had trees growing in it, surrounds an elevation of many acres, embracing a beautiful gushing spring. At Little River are four or five small caves which have been called "De Soto's Rock Houses," from the fact that they exhibit the marks of intelligent occupation. The walls have been smoothed by the hands of man. We give the language of the author:

> "It was doubtless a strong Indian fortification, and long used as a safe retreat when the valleys below were overrun with a victorious enemy. The walls were black with smoke, and everything about them bears evidence of constant occupation for years. These caves, or rock-houses, constituted a most admirable defence, especially with the assistance of the walls at the head of the peninsula. In order to get into the first cave, a person has to psss along a rock passage, wide enough only for one man. Below him, on his right, is the awful precipice, and on his left the rock wall, reaching ten feet above his head. A few persons in the first rock-house with swords and spears could keep off an army of one thousand men; for only one assailant being able to approach at a time, could be easily dispatched and tumbled down the abyss below. In regard to the inner walls of the ditches, the author saw no cement among the rocks, although he had heard that that ingredient (never used by Indians) was to be found there."

The cuttings upon rocks, etc., seen in various parts of Alabama, the author attributes also to the Indians, who used the pieces for the fabrication of pipes, mortars, bowls, etc. These cuttings are especially noticeable near the Tallapoosa River, and Elyton, in the county of Jefferson. We shall not undertake to decide such antiquarian questions, but leave the reader to work them out with the volume of Squier before him, which Mr. Pickett appears to have freely consulted.

We come now to the period when the French began to occupy Alabama. Bienville, who is, in truth, the father of Louisiana, and should have a monument at the mouth of its great river, departed with a force from Dauphin Island, sailed up the bay of Mobile, and at the mouth of Dog River commenced to build a fort, warehouse, and other buildings. This was in 1702, and seventeen years before the founding of New-Orleans! The site of Mobile was, however, removed nine years later to the mouth of the Mobile River, higher up the Alabama, where it now stands.

> "The high floods having inundated the settlements around Fort St. Louis de Mobile, Bienville determined to place his people upon more elevated ground. All the inhabitants, except the garrison of the fort, removed upon the Mobile River, where, upon the site of the present beautiful and wealthy commercial emporium of Alabama, they established themselves. Here Bienville built a new wooden fort, which, in a few years, was destroyed, to give place to an extensive fortress of brick, called, in French times, Fort Conde, and in English and Spanish times, Fort Charlotte. The seat of government was permanently fixed here, and the leading characters of the colony made Mobile their head-quarters. Only a small garrison was left at the old settlement at the mouth of Dog River, which, however, continued to guard that point for several years after this period."

The Carolina and Virginia traders began now to penetrate the western wilds, much to the annoyance and jealousy both of the Spanish and French. Upon the backs of packhorses they carried from Charleston stores of goods, "over creeks without bridges, rivers without ferries, and woods pathless and pregnant with many dangers," opening them upon the Coosa and Tallapoosa. To stop these interferences, Bienville fitted out an expedition to locate a fort upon the Alabama. Passing the towns of Selma and Autauga, his boats were moored at the town of Coosawda. The fort was located at Tuskeegee, a most favorable position; and the cannon which guarded it have become a subject of curious history. After remaining in position fifty years, they were spiked and abandoned with the fortress. During the English possession of Alabama, the cannon remained at Fort Toulouse, though the fort was suffered to fall into decay. Some blacksmiths among the Creeks removed the spikes, and the pieces were then used by the Indians for holiday amusements. On the settlement of Montgomery, the inhabitants brought down from Fort Toulouse, then called Jackson, some of these pieces to be used upon festivals, in which service they were in due time burst. A fragment stands now at Pollard's Corner, in Montgomery. One of the cannon still exists at Rockford, and it is thought that the others are in the bed of the river opposite the fort. The reflections which are made by Mr. Pickett upon the labors of Bienville among the savages, we think, detract from, rather than add to, the dignity of the narrative.

Passing over the numerous Indian wars of the colonists, and their contests with the Spaniards, including the whole period of the charter of Crozat and the "Mississippi Company," noticing only the arrival at Mobile, loaded with African slaves, of three French ships of war, (1721,) we arrive at a point when the disasters of the colony forced the abandonment of both Mobile and Biloxi, and produced the most terrible sufferings and mutinies at the post upon the Coosa. We also hurry over the chapter upon the Natchez massacre, which, in common with Mr. Gayarre, the author treats with great clearness and elaboration, adopting almost entirely the letter of Father Petit, published among the letters of the Jesuits, in the work of the Rev. Ingraham Kip, of New-York.

Chapters seven and eight of the history of Alabama treats of the English in Georgia, and of the daring scheme of a Jesuit named Priber, who traveled extensively among the Indians, gaining everywhere their confidence, and who pretended to have in view a confederation of all the southern Indians, for purposes of industry, civilization and freedom from the European yoke. Being arrested, he died in prison at Frederika. Dr. Stevens, in his history of Georgia, describes him as "a thorough Jesuit, an accomplished linguist, a deep tactician, far-sighted in his plans, and far-reaching in his expedients."

Referring to the failure of the French expeditions against the Chickasaws, those early natives of Alabama, Mr. Pickett takes occasion to compliment their gallantry, and to urge upon the rising generation of the state, an imitation of their example, *in the maintenance of their rights and their liberties.* We give the passage entire, p. 352 :

> "The Chickasaws have never been conquered. They could not be defeated by De Soto, with his Spanish army, in 1541; by Bienville, and his French army, and southern Indians, in 1736; by D'Artaguette, with his French army, and northern Indians; by Marquis De Vaudreueil, with his French troops and Choctaws, in 1752; nor by the Creeks, Cherokees, Kickapoos, Shawnees and Choctaws, who continually waged war against them. No! they were the 'bravest of the brave;' and even when they emigrated to the territory of Arkansas, not many years ago, they soon subdued some tribes who attacked them in that quarter.
>
> " Young men of northwestern Alabama and northeastern Mississippi, remember that the bravest race that ever lived, once occupied the country which you now inhabit—once fished in your streams, and chased the elk over your vast plains! Remember, that whenever that soil which you now tread was pressed by the feet of foes, it was not only bravely defended, but drenched with the blood of the invader. Will you ever disgrace that soil and the memory of its first occupants, by submitting to injustice and oppression, and finally to invasion? We unhesitatingly give the answer for you—No, never!"

The first volume of Mr. Pickett, and here we shall have to divide our subject, to be resumed in the next number, concludes with the delivery of Louisiana and Alabama to the English, under the treaty of 1763, and with some account of the expedition of Bossu into the interior of the country. A single extract furnishes a contrast between Alabama as we find it, and the wilderness out of which it has been so soon created :

> "Not only were the Creeks and Alabamas at peace with other nations at this time, but gave evidences of warm and generous hospitality. They thronged the banks of the river, which now meanders along the counties of Autauga, Montgomery, Dallas and Lowndes, and as Bossu slowly made his way up the beautiful stream, greeted him with friendly salutations, offered him provisions, such as bread, roasted turkeys, boiled venison, pancakes baked with nut oil, and deer tongues, together with baskets full of eggs of the fowl and turtle. The Great Spirit had blessed them with a magnificent river, abounding in fish; with delicious and cool fountains gushing out from the foot of the hills; with rich lands, that produced without cultivation, and with vast forests, abounding in game of every description. But now the whole scene is changed. The country is no longer half so beautiful; the waters of Alabama begin to be discolored; the forests have been cut down; steamers have destroyed the finny race; deer bound not over the plain; the sluggish bear has ceased to roam through the swamps; the bloody panther does not spring upon his prey; wolves have ceased to howl upon the hills; birds cannot be seen in the branches of the trees; graceful warriors guide no longer their canoes, and beautiful squaws loiter not upon the plain, nor pick the delicious berries. Now, vast fields of cotton, noisy steamers, huge rafts of lumber, towns reared for business, disagreeable corporation laws, harassing courts of justice, mills, factories, and everything else that is calculated to destroy the beauty of a country, and to rob man of his quiet and native independence, present themselves to our view.
>
> "The heart yearns to behold once more such a country as Alabama was, the first time we saw it, when a boy. But where can we now go, that we shall not find the busy American, with keen desire to destroy everything which nature has made lovely?"

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE HOG BUSINESS OF THE WEST.

We are indebted to the Cincinnati Prices Current and to Mr. Cist's valuable work, entitled "Cincinnati in 1851," for the following statistics of this most important western crop, which will interest our readers everywhere. The figures show that whatever may be the merits of other places in this particular, and we speak it dèferentially, the palm, after all, will have to be accorded to Cincinnati, of being, beyond comparison, in that sense only in which it is no discredit, the most *hoggish* place in all the West.

Mr. Cist says, that Cincinnati is the principal pork market in the United States, and without even the exception of Cork and Belfast, the largest in the world. The business dates back 26 years, but has only been important since 1833.

HOGS KILLED IN THE WEST.

	1850-'51.	1849-'50.
Ohio, exclusive of Cincinnati	64,027	152,900
Indiana	329,549	380,174
Kentucky	205,414	201,000
Cumberland Valley	30,000	40,000
Cincinnati	310,000	401,735
	938,990	1,175,809
		938,990
		236,819
Deduct 10 per cent. for light weight		93,899
Total deficiency		142,920

COMPARISON OF THE NUMBER OF HOGS DRIVEN SOUTH FROM KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE.

	1849-'50.	1850-'51.
Through Cumberland Gap	43,000	21,000
Through Asheville, N. C., embracing Tennessee hogs	81,000	40,000
	124,000	61,000
	61,000	
Deficiency	63,000	
To which add deficiency in weight	6,300	
Total	69,300 hogs.	

PACKING OF LOWER KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE AND KENTUCKY RIVER.

	1849-'50.	1850-51.
Bowling Green and vicinity	15,000	9,000
Clarksville	15,000	6,000
Canton	5,271	1,700
Nashville, Tenn	13,476	5,382
Gallatin, Tenn	6,800	895
Woodsonville, Ky	4,000	1,000
Owensboro, Ky	3,500	none.
Brandenburgh	2,100	600
Rock Haven	5,300	1,300
Salt River, in flatboats	6,000	1,200
On Kentucky River	15,000	7,000
	91,447	34,077
	34,077	
Deficiency	57,370	
To which add deficient weight of fully 22 lbs. per hog, equal to (hogs)	3,950	
Total deficiency	61,320 hogs.	

RECAPITULATION.

Deficiency in hogs driven	69,300
Deficiency in hogs packed in Lower Kentucky, Tennessee, and on Tennessee River	61,320
Deficiency in weight around the falls equal to	1,180
Total deficiency in hogs	131,800
Deficiency in barrels of pork around the falls	1,705
Deficiency in pounds of lard around the falls	519,227
Equal in barrels to	2,360

PORK PACKING IN KENTUCKY AND TENNESSEE.

The Louisville Courier of the 23d instant says: We subjoin the following statistics in regard to the product of the hog, which have been accurately and carefully compiled from authentic sources, and will prove serviceable to the mercantile community. It gives the exact number of hogs slaughtered around Louisville for the last two years; also, the actual weight of hogs, the weight of lard, and the quantities of pork made; together with the deficiencies and gains, here and elsewhere. The list embraces full returns from Kentucky, Tennessee, and the hogs driven South, and shows a total deficiency of 131,800 hogs this season. This table will be valuable for future references:

PACKERS. 1849–50.	Hogs Slaughter'd.	Aggregate Weight, (lbs.)	Aggregate Weight of Lard.	No. of bbls. Pork.
Adams & Co.	41,545	8,852,398	1,732,210	19,755
A. S. White & Co	34,017	6,494,040	1,360,680	12,984
Huffman, Maxcy & Co.	30,363	5,772,288	775,919	10,863
M. D. Walker	35,600	6,831,000	1,479,213	13,820
McDonald & Day	11,000	2,068,000	352,000	2,815
Clifton, Atkinson & Co	26,580	5,200,000	625,000	8,200
R. Ernst	none		495,000	none
Bailey	none	1,225,000	154,000	none
Total	179,105	36,442,726	6,974,022	68,437
1850–'51.				
Jackson, Owsley & Co.	41,752	8,056,015	1,484,236	14,439
A. S. White & Co	31,773	5,535,900	1,048,409	10,952
Huffman, Maxcy & Co.	24,600	4,568,238	586,986	8,757
W. Jarvis & Co	25,691	4,878,349	975,179	9,102
Brannin, Bacon & Co.	27,550	5,219,760	927,669	9,541
Clifton, Atkinson & Co.	25,178	4,657,950	553,816	8,360
McDonald & Day	13,370	2,366,490	361,000	3,681
Key & Garner	5,500	962,500	147,500	1,900
R. Ernst	none		370,000	none
Total	195,414	36,245,182	6,454,795	66,732

We extract the following entire from Mr. Cist's work:

HOG BUSINESS OF CINCINNATI.

Year.	No. of Hogs.	Year.	No. of Hogs.	Year.	No. of Hogs.
1833	85,000	1840	95,000	1847	250,000
1834	123,000	1841	160,000	1848	498,160
1835	162,000	1842	220,000	1849	310,000
1836	123,000	1843	250,000	1850	401,755
1837	103,000	1844	240,000	1851	324,529
1838	182,000	1845	213,000	.....	
1839	199,000	1846	287,000	.....	

Year.	Hogs packed in Ohio.	Per cent. in Cin'ti.	Year.	Hogs packed in Ohio.	Per cent. in Cin'ti.
1844	560,000	43	1848	742,212	66
1845	450,000	47	1849	600,316	71
1846	425,000	68	1850	563,645	80
1847	325,000	70	1851	388,556	80

"The hogs raised for this market, are generally a cross of *Irish*, *Grazier*, *Byfield*, *Berkshire*, *Russia*, *and China*, in such proportions as to unite the qualifications of size, tendency to fat, and beauty of shape to the hams.

"The slaughter houses of Cincinnati are in the outskirts of the city, are ten in number, and fifty by one hundred and thirty feet each in extent, the frames being boarded up with moveable lattice-work at the sides, which is kept open to admit air, in the ordinary temperature, but is shut up during the intense cold, which occasionally attends the packing season, so that hogs shall not be frozen so stiff that they cannot be cut up to advantage. These establishments employ, each, as high as one hundred hands, selected for this business, which requires a degree of strength and activity that always commands high wages.

"The slaughterers formerly got the gut fat for the whole of the labor thus described, wagoning the hogs more than a mile to the pork houses, free of expense to the owners. Every year, however, enhances the value of the perquisites, such as the fat, heart, liver, &c., for food; and the hoofs, hair, and other parts for manufacturing purposes. For the last two years, from ten to twenty-five cents per hog have been paid as a bonus for the privilege of killing.

"The hauling of hogs from the slaughter house to the packers, is itself a large business, employing full fifty of the largest class of wagons, each loading from sixty to one hundred and ten hogs at a load.

"The hogs are taken into the pork houses from the wagons and piled up in rows as high as possible. These piles are generally close to the scales. Another set of hands carry them to the scales, where they are usually weighed singly, for the advantage of the draught. They are taken hence to the blocks, where the head and feet are first struck off, no blow needing its repetition. The hog is then cloven into three parts, separating the ham and shoulder ends from the middle. These are again divided into single hams, shoulders and sides. The leaf lard is then torn out, and every piece distributed with the exactness and regularity of machinery, to its appropriate pile. The tender-loins, usually two pounds to the hog, after affording supplies to families, who consume probably one-half of the product, are sold to the manufacturers of sausages.

"The hog, thus cut up into shoulders, hams and middlings, undergoes further trimming to get the first two articles in proper shape. The size of the hams and shoulders varies with their appropriate markets, and with the price of lard, which, when high, tempts the pork packer to trim very close, and, indeed, to render the entire shoulder into lard. If the pork is intended to be shipped off in bulk, or for the smoke house, it is piled up in vast masses, covered with fine salt in the proportion of fifty pounds of salt to two hundred pounds weight of meat. If otherwise, the meat is packed away in barrels with coarse and fine salt in due proportions—no more of the latter being employed than the meat will require for immediate absorption, and the coarse salt remaining in the barrel to renew the pickle, whose strength is withdrawn by the meat, in process of time.

"The different classes of cured pork, packed in barrels, are made up of the different sizes and conditions of hogs—the finest and fattest making clear and mess pork, while the residue is put up into prime pork or bacon. The inspection laws require that clear pork shall be put up of the sides, with the ribs out. It takes the largest class of hogs to receive this brand. Mess pork—all sides, with two rumps to the barrel. For prime—pork of lighter weight will suffice. Two shoulders, two jowls, and sides enough to fill the barrel, make the contents. Two hundred pounds of meat is required by the inspector, but one hundred and ninety-six pounds, packed here, it is ascertained, will weigh out more than the former quantity in the eastern or southern markets.

"The mess pork is used for the commercial marine, and the United States navy. This last class, again, is put up somewhat differently, by specifications made out for the purpose. The prime is packed for ship use and the southern markets. The clear pork goes out to the cod and mackerel fisheries. The New Englanders, in the line of pickled pork, buy nothing short of the best.

"Bulk pork is that which is intended for immediate use or for smoking. The former class is sent off in flatboats for the lower Mississippi. It forms no important element of the whole, the great mass being sent into the smoke-houses, each of which will cure a hundred and seventy-five thousand to five hundred thousand pounds at a time. Here the bacon, as far as possible, is kept until it is actually wanted for shipment, when it is packed in hogsheads containing from eight hundred to nine hundred pounds, the hams, sides, and shoulders put up each by themselves. The bacon is sold to the iron manufacturing regions of Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and Ohio—to the fisheries of Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, and to the coast or Mississippi region above New-Orleans. Large quantities are disposed of, also, for the consumption of the Atlantic cities. Flatboats leave here about the first of July, and they all take down more or less bacon for the coast trade.

"Of five hundred thousand hogs cut up here during that season, the product, in the manufactured article, will be:

Barrels of pork	180,000
Pounds of bacon	25,000,000
" lard	16,500,000

"These are the products, thus far, of the pork houses' operations alone That is to say, the articles thus referred to, are put up in these establishments, from the hams, shoulders, sides, leaf lard, and a small portion of the jowls—the residue of the carcasses, which are taken to the pork-houses, being left to enter elsewhere into other departments of manufacture. The relative proportions, in weight of bacon and lard, rest upon contingencies. An unexpected demand and advance in price of lard would greatly reduce the disparity, if not invert the proportion of these two articles. A change in the prospects of the value of pickled pork, during the progress of packing, would also reduce or increase the proportion of barreled pork to the bacon and lard.

"The lard made here is exported in packages for the Havana market, where, besides being extensively used, as in the United States, for cooking, it answers the purpose to which butter is applied in this country. It is shipped to the Atlantic markets, also, for local use, as well as for export to England and France, either in the shape it leaves this market, or in lard oil; large quantities of which are manufactured at the east.

"There is one establishment here, which, beside putting up hams, &c., extensively, is engaged in extracting the grease from the rest of the hog. Its operations have reached, in one season, as high as thirty-six thousand hogs. It has seven large circular tanks—six of capacity to hold each fifteen thousand pounds, and one to hold six thousand pounds—all gross. These receive the entire carcass, with the exception of the hams, and the mass is subjected to steam process, under a pressure of seventy pounds to the square inch; the effect of which operation is to reduce the whole to one consistence, and every bone to powder. The fat is drawn off by cocks, and the residuum, a mere earthy substance, as far as made use of, is taken away for manure. Beside the hogs which reach this factory in entire carcasses, the great mass of heads, ribs, back-bones, feet, and other trimmings of the hog, cut up at different pork-houses, are subjected to the same process, in order to extract every particle of grease. This concern alone turned out, the season referred to, three millions six hundred thousand pounds lard, five-sixths of which was No. 1. Nothing can surpass the purity and beauty of this lard, which is refined as well as made under steam processes. Six hundred hogs per day pass through these tanks, one day with another.

"We follow now to the manufacture of lard oil, which is accomplished by divesting the lard of one its constituent parts—stearine. There are probably thirty lard oil factories here, on a scale of more or less importance. The largest of these, whose operations are probably more extensive than any other in the United States, has manufactured, heretofore, into lard oil and stearine, one hundred and forty thousand pounds monthly, all the year round.

"Eleven million pounds of lard were run into lard oil that year, two-sevenths of which aggregate made stearine; the residue, lard oil, or in other words, twenty-four thousand barrels of lard oil, of forty to forty-two gallons each. The oil is exported to the Atlantic cities and foreign countries. Much the larger share of this, is of inferior lard, made of mast-fed and still-fed hogs, and the material, to a great extent, comes from a distance, making no part of these tables. Lard oil, beside being sold for what it actually is, enters largely, in the eastern cities, into the adulteration of sperm oil; and in France, serves to reduce the cost of olive oil. The skill of the French chemists enables them to incorporate from sixty-five to seventy per cent. of lard oil with that of the olive. The presence of lard oil can be detected, however, by a deposit of stearine; small portions of which always remain with that article, and may be found at the bottom of the bottle.

"We now come to the star candles, made of the stearine expressed from the lard in manufacture of lard oil. The stearine is subjected to hydraulic pressure, by which three-eighths of it is discharged as an impure olein. This last is employed in the manufacture of soap. Three million pounds of stearine, at least, have been made, in one year, into star candles and soap in these factories, and they are prepared to manufacture thirty thousand pounds star candles per day. The manufacture of 1847–48, embracing stearine from foreign lard, probably reached one-half that quantity.

"From the slaughterers, the offal capable of producing grease, goes to another description of grease extractors; where are also taken hogs dying of disease or by accident, and meat that is spoiling through unfavorable weather or want of care. The grease tried out here, enters into the soap manufacture. Lard grease is computed to form eighty per cent. of all the fat used in the making of soap. Of the ordinary soap one hundred thousand pounds are made weekly, equal, at four cents per pound, to two hunded thousand dollars per annum. This is exclusive of the finer soaps, and of soft soap, which are probably worth twenty-five per cent. more.

"Glue, to an inconsiderable amount, is made of the hoofs of the hogs.

"At the rear of these operations, comes bristle dressing for the Atlantic markets. This business employs one hundred hands, and affords a product of fifty-five thousand dollars.

"Last of all is the disposition of what cannot be used for other purposes, the hair, hoofs, and other offal. These are employed in the manufacture of prussiate of potash, to the product of which, also, contributes the cracklings or residuum left, on expressing the lard. The prussiate of potash is used extensively in the print factories of New-England, for coloring purposes. The blood of the hog is manufactured into Prussian blue.

"A brief recapitulation of the various manufactures out of the hog, at this point and date, present:

Barrels pork	180,000	Pounds star candles	2,500,000
Pounds bacon	25,000,000	" bar soap	6,200,000
" No. 1 lard	16,500,000	" Fancy soap, etc	8,800.000
Gallons lard oil	1,200,000	Prussiate of potash	60,000

"Five hundred thousand hogs exhibit, including seven pounds of gut-fat to each, one hundred millions pounds, carcass weight, when dressed. This is distributed thus:

180,000 bbls. pork, 196 lbs. net, is	35,280.000
Bacon	25,000.000
No. 1, or leaf lard	16.260,000
Commmon lard or grease for oil, stearine and olein	6,000.000
Inferior grease for soap	1,200.000
Evaporation, shrinkage, waste, cracklings and offal for manure	16,260,000
	100,000,000

"The value of all this depends, of course, on the foreign demand. In 1847 the pork, bacon, lard, lard oil, star candles, soap, bristles, &c., exceeded six millions of dollars in value. For 1848, it had, probably, reached eight millions. But for the reduced prices which a greatly increased product always creates, it must far exceed that value.

"The buildings in which the pork is put up, are of great extent and capacity, and in every part thoroughly arranged for the business. They generally extend from street to street, so as to enable one set of operations to be carried on without interfering with another. There are thirty-six of these establishments, beside a number of minor importance.

"The following are specimens of hogs and lots of hogs, killed in Cincinnati, this season and the last.

Hogs.	Average weight. lbs.	Hogs.	Average weight. lbs.
7	722	52	377
5	640	50	375
22	403		

Of these were nine—one litter—weighing respectively, 316, 444, 454, 452, 456, 516, 526, 532.

320 hogs	325
657 "	305

"Few, if any of these hogs, were over nineteen months old. The last lot is extraordinary—combining quantity and weight—even for the West. They were all raised in one neighborhood in Madison county, Kentucky, by Messrs. Caldwell, Campbell, Ross, and Gentry, the oldest being nineteen months in age.

"The value of these manufacturing operations to Cincinnati, consists in the vast amount of labor they require and create, and the circumstance that the great mass of that labor furnishes employment to thousands, at precisely the very season when their regular avocations cannot be pursued. Thus, there are, perhaps, fifteen hundred coopers engaged in and outside of the city, making lard kegs, pork barrels, and bacon hogsheads: the city coopers, at a period when they are not needed on stock barrels and other cooperage, and the country coopers, whose main occupation is farming, during a season when the farms require no labor at their hands. Then there is another large body of hands, also agriculturists, at the proper season, engaged getting out staves and heading, and cutting hoop-poles, for the same business. Vast quantities of boxes of various descriptions, are made for packing bacon, for the Havana and European markets. Lard is also packed to a great extent, for export in tin cases or boxes, the making of which furnishes extensive occupation to the tin-plate workers.

"If we take into view, farther, that the slaughtering, the wagoning, the pork-house labor, the rendering grease and lard oil, the stearine and soap factories, bristle dressing, and other kindred employments, supply abundant occupation to men, who, in the spring, are engaged in the manufacture and hauling of bricks, quarrying and hauling stone, cellar digging and walling, bricklaying, plastering, and street paving, with other employments, which, in their very nature, cease on the approach of winter, we can readily appreciate the importance of a business, which supplies labor to the industry of, probably, ten thousand individuals, who, but for its existence, would be earning little or nothing, one-third of the year.

"The last United States census gave 26,301,293, as the existing number of hogs at that date. The principal increase since, is in the West, owing to the abundance of corn there; and that quantity may be now safely enlarged to forty-five millions. This is about the number assigned to entire Europe, in 1839, by McGregor, in his Commercial Dictionary; and there is probably no material increase there since, judging by the slow advance in that section of the world, in productions of any kind.

"The number of hogs cut up in the valley of the Mississippi, will reach, for recent years, as an average, one million seven hundred thousand; of this, it will be seen, that twenty-eight per cent., or over one-fourth of the whole quantity, is put up for market in Cincinnati alone."

2.—COTTON PLANTERS' REMEDY FOR LOW PRICES.

A correspondent of the Arkansas Shield has favored us with his contribution to that paper, in which he recommends a Cotton Planters' Convention at New-Orleans to diminish the production of cotton by a compact and by subordinate state and county associations. We are afraid the thing is impracticable, and hesitate even to endorse to the full extent the plan of the Macon Convention, published in our November number. That the planters are at the mercy of the buyers is clear, and regarding it an unnatural state of things, we are inclined to the opinion there is a remedy somewhere—but where that remedy lies, is the rub. Will not our intelligent planters make use of the Review, which circulates so extensively among them, in the elucidation of the problem? An extract is all we can give at present from the writer in the Shield, remarking that there are other applications of slave labor, as in factories and in building rail-roads, which would afford still further relief:

"The benefits arising from this system or policy are of a magnitude that will not be perceived without reflection. What are they? Suppose we say that ten acres of cotton to the hand is the average; every cotton planter knows what it takes to cultivate ten acres of cotton. It is a press, a *drive*, from the 1st of January to the 1st of January next. But instead of ten, let him plant six acres to the hand; fewer agricultural implements and less mule team will answer his purpose. This of itself is a saving. He economizes four months of his labor, which he can devote to raising his stock, manufacturing his negro clothing, and the general improvement of his plantation. His yard, garden, &c., could be enriched and ornamented. In a word, his plantation could be made a desirable home, with all the conveniences that home ought to possess; could be made to charm and hold him, instead of the dilapidated, desolate and anti-home appearance of Southern plantations under the present system of planting all you can cultivate. But to the figures. Fancy sketches of pretty yards, etc., won't influence a planter; but convince him that you will put money in his pocket, and he adopts your plan.

COST OF CULTIVATING 100 ACRES.

5 Mules, worth	$500
15 Ploughs and Scrapers	75
5 set gear	15
Feed for five mules	250
	840
Four months' labor for ten hands, which is saved by cultivating only 60 acres, at $20	800
	$1,640

COST OF CULTIVATING 60 ACRES.

3 Mules, worth	$300
10 Ploughs and Scrapers	50
3 set gear	9
Feed for 3 mules	150
	$509

"Suppose the value of the product the same, and I am certain the value of the 60 would be 20 per cent. more than that of the 100 acres under the general system, and you have $1,131 in favor of the 60 acres, or $113 to the hand; this of itself would be a good profit.

"I propose that a Convention of Cotton Planters be held in New-Orleans on the 1st of January next, to organize a plan to reduce the cultivation of cotton, that being our only remedy for ruinous low prices. Let every county in the South send a delegate to this Convention, and let them determine on the maximum number of acres that shall be planted to the hand, and then get the pledge of every member that he will get the voluntary obligation of every planter in his county not to plant more than the number of acres agreed on. This is practicable and could be effected; one half the labor that it takes to carry a sheriff's election would do the work. When the delegate gets home, he could appoint assistants in each civil district or township. But would the planters sign such a pledge and stick to it after signing? I say they would. An isolated case of a mean, groveling one, might be found to violate the pledge after signing; let him be marked with the infamy he deserves; cut him off from all fellowship with his craft, and mark his children as the progeny of a man who would not keep his faith.

"State Conventions might be formed tributary to the General Convention; and even county Conventions, tributary to the state; and a perfect organized system be made to reach every planter in the South, and effect the object contemplated. Let the General Convention meet annually, at some one of the southern sea-ports, or wherever the previous Convention might elect, and each year determine the number of acres to be planted the next year. Perhaps an increase in the planting may be demanded, or it may be necessary to order a decrease in the number of acres; and in this way the quantum necessary for a healthy supply could be regulated.

"Is it practicable? The first question is, is it necessary? When our forefathers determined the necessity of revolution and separation from the mother country, they did not stop to inquire into its practicability. They revolutionized, and separated, and established our glorious confederacy; and at this time the cotton planters are pecuniarily more tributary to England than our forefathers were politically. Shall we revolutionize and make the moneyed power of Europe tributary to us, or shall we remain its vassals, subject to its mercy?

"Cotton planters, think of my plan; and if it will do, let's go to work and carry it out; and if it won't do, in the name of our southern country, propose a remedy that will do." M.

3.—SUGAR MAKING.

Dr. Shier, agricultural chemist to the colony of British Guiana, has discovered a method of extracting an extra quantity of sugar from the juice of the cane by substituting subsidence and filtration for skimming, in the clarification of the juice. By this means he obtains nearly 20 per cent. more than by the ordinary process, and the juice yields from 1 lb. 4 oz. to 1lb. 10 oz. of muscovado per gallon.

4.—THE LARGEST CROP OF COTTON EVER YET ANNOUNCED.

The following extraordinary statement has been made to us by Col. Quarles, on whose authority we give it to the public. Mr. D. W. Quarles, son of Col. Quarles, whose plantation is on Oyster Creek, in Brazoria County, has made this season four hundred bales of cotton on one hundred and sixty acres of land, and with twelve hands! About three hundred bales of this cotton have already been picked, but the picking is still going on, and when completed, the amount will not be less than four hundred bales. It is not pretended that the whole of this has been picked out by the same twelve hands, for during the picking season Mr. Quarles employed a large number of hands to assist him, whose labor will cost a hundred or more bales, so that the nett proceeds of the twelve hands will be two hundred and seventy-five, or perhaps three hundred bales. The whole of this cotton was planted and cultivated by the said twelve hands, and the only help they had was in the picking. To prevent any misunderstanding of this statement, we are authorized to say, that the bales are of the average weight of those usually made in Texas, that is, about 500 lbs. each.

In addition to the above we have authority to say, that the same twelve hands have raised and gathered, during the season, 2,300 bushels of corn from thirty acres of land, which is considerably below the yield of corn last year, on the same plantation. It may be of some interest here to state, that the above crops of cotton and corn were both planted in February, which Col. Quarles thinks is the month in which both cotton and corn should always be planted in Texas. The picking of the cotton was commenced on the 4th of July last.

If, after paying for the extra labor required to pick the above crop, there shall remain 275 bales, which is the smallest named; then the nett proceeds of the twelve hands will be within a small fraction of 23 bales each, to which we must add 191 bushels of corn, to make the total product of each hand's labor; and this, at the present prices of cotton and corn, cannot fall much, if any, short of one thousand dollars to the hand.

Should our readers wish confirmation of the above statement, we are authorized to give the names of Messrs. Williams, Gass, Compton, Lobdell and Love, who own and cultivate adjoining plantations, and will bear testimony to its correctness. The land which produced this crop is of the usual quality of Oyster Creek lands, and, indeed, of the bottom lands of Texas generally, of which any one may be readily convinced by his own observation!—*Galveston* (*Texas*) *News.*

5.—IMPROVEMENT OF COTTON.

The following interesting letter from Col. H. W. Vick, of Vicksburg, appears in the Southern Cultivator. It is upon a subject of the utmost importance to the growers of cotton. It is not the first able communication we have seen from the pen of Col. Vick, though it is to be regretted that planters who are able to give to their fellow-planters such clear and satisfactory accounts of the results of their experience, should so rarely take pen in hand.

The letters were originally addressed to Dr. Phillips, of Hinds county, Miss. These are the principal facts stated:

Seventeen years since, I procured from the Petit Gulf-hills some excellent cotton seed, known then, as now, as the little brown, or drab Petit Gulf Mexican. For the first seven years, ordinary care was taken of them; when, having met with none superior, I set the resolution to improve them if I could.

I first had a few bushels of seed culled from the bulk, of uniform appearance, and of the description supposed best, This was done for two years. The seed were purified, as it is termed, but the benefit to the crop was barely perceptible. I have since found that this method can be practised with advantage, but only under circumstances hereafter to be named.

I next sent three men ahead of the other hands, assigning four rows to each, with orders to pick the best bolls from the best stalks only. I was so much pleased with the result, that I practised this method for five years, under the impression that it was the best that could be devised. But it was not.

The summer and fall of 1843 I spent on my cane-hills plantation, seven miles from Vicksburg. While superintending personally, as I had previously done, the three men mentioned picked a few of the largest and most beautiful bolls from the extra fine stalks, which I kept apart in my pockets, hat, handkerchief, and in every way I could, and papered up under notes and memorandums, for future examination, To this method I am indebted for anything I know respecting cotton known to every one.

Of the First Method.—Little is accomplished by picking a large or even considerable quantity of seed from a large bulk. For an amount of experience and judgment is required to do this with discrimination, that will never be possessed by any negro, rarely by any overseer, and but seldom by any planter. But the seed from a single stalk may safely be trusted to a negro, or overseer, by whom the mixed seed, if any, may be separated, papered apart, and tied up with those proper to the stalk. This, however, with the best stalks, should, whenever convenient, be attended to by the planter himself, as well for study as satisfaction and profit.

Of Second Method.—For a field of 50 hands, 400 to 500 lbs. of cotton should annually be culled. If this were done, the size and opening of boll, size, health and production of stalk, picking properties, quantity, and quality of lint, would all be advanced.

Of Third Method.—In favor of this method, on which the gardener, orchardist, &c., mainly depends, which is as old as the practice, and older than the science of agriculture, too much cannot be said.

6.—INTRODUCTION OF FOREIGN VEGETABLES AND ANIMALS.

Among the two or three hundred thousand vegetables and animals that God has created to satisfy our natural and artificial wants, there are very few that we have yet acclimated or domesticated, or know how to employ. However few they may be, we continue to increase them, and our power to make acquisitions would appear to have no limits but those of creation. A considerable number of the plants which grow among us have been brought very recently from climates quite different from ours. It will be useful to notice this fact.

Thus, Asia has given us hemp, the cherry, the peach, the French bean, the tarragon, the onion, rhubarb, mint, the mulberry, the citron, the lime, the orange, the chestnut, the pine of Siberia, the pine of Jerusalem, the plane tree of the East, the aloe, the rose of Provence, the mallow rose, the millet, the cypress, and so forth. Grain and buckwheat we got from the Levant, and the olive from Africa.

Europe has borrowed from America the potato, the maize, the tobacco, the banana, the love-apple, the strawberry, the medlar tree, and a hundred other trees, fruits, plants and flowers.

Within three or four centuries, Europe and America have been literally invaded with vegetables from all parts of the globe. We live almost entirely upon what has been borrowed from other countries; and it is but the advance guard of the immense quantity and variety which science, and the rapid intercommunication between the different parts of the world, will give us. We are at liberty to choose from the general herbal of creation all that suits us.

I cannot give an inventory of all the riches that we can appropriate. It would almost be an endless labor to give such a catalogue of creation. I will but glance at a few among the alimentary plants—the *artocarpe*, (so precious to the inhabitants of Tahiti,) the *sagotier*, the palm-cabbage, the bamboo of Celebes, (of which the young sprouts have a delicious flavor,) the cocoa tree, (of which the fruit is both meat and drink,) the gum tree, the bread fruit, the sugar palm, the plantain and banana, the tamarind, the *papayer*, the mangosteen, &c. Among the textile plants I might mention a great variety; but I will notice only the New Zealand flax, and the abaca, (*artica utilis*)—a kind of flax in the Philipine Islands and China, of which the Chinese make the most superb stuffs. Of the trees for cabinet-making, for building, and for the masts of vessels, a thousand might be taken from the pines, the cedars, the ebony, the sandal, and the satin wood. Then there are the trees which yield us gums, rosin, tinctures, and medicines; the spice and tea trees; and a number of others not so useful, perhaps, but which would delight us with their beauty and fragrance.

To speak of the animal kingdom: how many more kinds might we domesticate than we have? Mr. Jeffroy St. Hilaire cites several in his memoir upon the utility of a menagerie of acclimation—those great antelopes, which would furnish an abundance of healthy food; the Peruvian sheep, of which the wool is so fine and soft; the tapir, larger than the pig, and as easy to feed, the flesh of which is very agreeable and wholesome, and which might be made useful as a beast of burden; the lama, the alpaca, and a number of others.

And thus, among birds, if we direct our attention to the subject, we shall discover many other kinds worth introducing or domesticating for their flesh, their eggs, or their beauty.

With respect to fish, also, our rivers or streams, and small lakes, could be peopled with a vast multitude and variety of the finny tribes. Fish increase very abundantly, and science will teach us to transform those of the sea into fresh water fish. Carp did not appear in England till the sixteenth century, and the plaice of the North Sea have multiplied infinitely in the ponds of the Old World.

7.—CROP AND SUPPLY OF COTTON.*

We find, on the first September, an unusually small aggregate stock on hand in our ports, and the stocks held by manufacturers smaller than usual;

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* We are indebted to George G. Henry, Esq., of Mobile, one of the most intelligent and practical merchants of that city, for this valuable paper, prepared by him as a circular to his correspondents. No man in the South is more thorough in such statistics, and more often correct in his deductions from them.

and the quantity of old cotton held in the country was a mere bagatelle. In reply to frequent inquiry, in relation to the extent of land planted in cotton, compared with former years, I was answered, in substance, that the tide of emigration, from the older cotton states, to Louisiana, Arkansas and Texas, having been checked, the increasing population engaged in factories, in rail-roads, and the natural falling off in the production of their lands, had, together, been requiring an increase of grain planting, and having planted very fully the year before last of cotton, as the prices and prospects were favorable, if anything, the quantity of land planted in cotton was hardly so great as the year before, though more largely in grain, certainly no sensible increase in cotton. They say they invariably have planted all they could cultivate; but the lands do not yield, of late, such crops of cotton as in former years.

The season for planting last spring was cold and dry generally, and backward. In some quarters there was no rain from April to August, and generally, it was the driest year ever known in the cotton regions. Raining a good deal in August, the plant seemed to have been scalded, and shed off the forms, blooms and small bolls, causing very much alarm amongst the planters. I contended with them, though, at the time, that their crops were not nearly so bad as they really thought. Later, they see they were mistaken, and confess their crops are better than they supposed; that I was correct, and they were not. It was not intended on their part to deceive; but their injudicious and wholesale complaint then, and their crops evidently yielding better than they declared, has led to an indiscriminate cry now on the other hand, that the crop will be quite large—which is as incorrect, and as much upon the other extreme.

To arrive at a practical conclusion relative to matters of this nature, we must look at probabilities; judge of the future by the past, and not too readily adopt as realities, expressions, the offspring of fear at one time, and of hope at another. I will now present the crop of the Atlantic States.

It has contended against the longest and most unusual drought I have ever noticed. I witnessed its effects there, and the appearances indicated a general failure of their crops. Some planters said, they would not make a quarter of last year's crop, some a half, &c. Let us see what the receipts of cotton at the Atlantic ports, for the past ten years, have been:

1850-1.	'49-50.	'48-9.	'47-8.	'46-7.	'45-6.	'44-5.	'43-4.	'42-3.	'41-2.
752,000	751,000	877,000	527,000	613,000	462,000	760,000	582,000	672,000	613,000

If you observe, the receipts for 1845–'46 were 462,000 bales, as above shown. You will remember that that summer was very dry; but not so dry, if anything, as the past summer and spring. Seeing that their receipts for the two succeeding years were so light, that the three together only averaged 534,000 bales; and that the third one from it, or the receipts of 1848–'49, were 877,000, we are reminded of our information that the crops of those three years were larger than represented by the receipts—as in the crop year of 1848–49, 200,000 bales of old cotton in this division alone were sent forward, made, doubtless, within these three years. We may assume then, that the crop of 1845–'46 was 500,000 instead of 462,000. If we call the Atlantic one-third short of last year's, we have for this year, you will see, a crop of 500,000 bales—and all that one sees indicates it will be much under that. Allowing for rail-road facilities, however, towards North Alabama and Tennessee—I put their crop at 610,000 bales.

Three-fourths of the receipts of cotton at the Florida ports, is derived from the eastern counties of Alabama, where their lands are strong and fresh, and the southwestern counties of Georgia. I estimate it at 170,000 bales.

The receipts at Mobile we will carefully consider; for, although we receive at least three-eighths of our cotton from high and droughty lands, a portion of the remaining five-eighths comes from low slough lands, that fail pretty much in wet years, and hence are not uniform in their yield. Such a season as this has been suits them well. I will give below the receipts at this city, from the different rivers for the past five years:

	1850-1.	1849-50.	1848-9.	1847-8.	1846-7.
Alabama River	214,000	187,000	260,000	193,000	164,000
Tombigbee	171,000	102,000	176,000	183,000	122,000
Warrior	61,000	56,000	75,000	54,000	35,000
Wagons	6,000	6,000	9,000	7,000	3,000
Total bales	452,000	351,000	519,000	437,000	324,000

Averaging for five years, 417,000 bales.

The crop last year was 452,000 bales, which was smartly over the average of the past five years. My unvarying estimate for our receipts last year, was 450,000. My conclusion with regard to the Mobile crop is—the Warrior will be 15,000 bales short, the Bigbee 10,000, and I allow to the Alabama about the same as last year, which would make for us 425,000; but my estimate for this port is 450,000 bales, and I am quite confident it will not exceed my figures.

We now come to New-Orleans. Below I will submit the statement of their receipts of cotton for part of five years, from each of their great divisions.

	1850-1.	1849-50.	1848-9.	1847-8.	1846-7.
Louisiana and Mississippi	618,000	476,000	811,000	883,000	454,000
Lake	14,000	11,000	16,000	14,000	4,000
North Alabama and Tennessee	237,000	250,000	217,000	228,000	212,000
Arkansas	64,000	45,000	47,000	66,000	36,000
Total bales	933,000	782,000	1,091,000	1,191,000	706,000

You will be struck with the fact, that from the Lake, North Alabama, Tennessee, and Arkansas, they received a heavier crop last year than for any of the past five, not excepting even the large crop years of 1847 and 1848; whilst Mississippi and Louisiana only fall a little below the average of five years. Last year the crops of the state of Mississippi on the Mississippi River bottoms and the Yazoo bottoms were fine, and although not full on the highlands, were near about an average. On the Red River, in Louisiana, the crop was short of an average. My information then respecting the New-Orleans receipts amounts to this, that the North Alabama counties are as good, compared with last year—that the Western Tennessee and North Mississippi crops, shipped from Memphis, are decidedly short, and so of the Arkansas crop. The Missisippi bottoms are as fine—the Yazoo bottoms, in Mississippi, not so good. The crops of many of the best counties are not so good—whilst some again will equal last year's. In short, the Mississippi state crop is rather *under*, than over last year. We have to further inquire how will the crop of Louisiana, this year, compare with that of last year. Last year it was about 175,000 bales. It will be increased some; but query, will it increase as much as the falling off at Memphis, in Arkansas, and Mississippi? I understand *not*—but I estimate the receipts at New-Orleans 970,000 bales.

Texas suffered, as did the other cotton regions—but allowing for some increase of land planted, I put her crop at 50,000 bales. Her very slow increase in the extent of her crop is to be ascribed to the demand the planters there have for corn and provisions from the new settlers. My estimate then stands thus, viz.:

	1850-1.	The Crop of each point last year was
Atlantic States	610,000	742,000
Florida	170,000	181,000
Mobile	450,000	452,000
New-Orleans	970,000	933,000
Texas	50,000	46,000
Total bales	2,250,000	2,354,000

Had it never before occurred. I should feel regret to know, that I differ so much from some gentlemen, as I understand I do. In reference to the estimates of 1846, I discover the prominent one of Savannah was 2,175,000 bales—the crop was 1,778,000—four hundred thousand bales less. My estimate that year was 1,700,000. Last year the big crop estimate was 2,800,000 bales. My outside estimate was 2,300,000 bales. These large estimates are old stories, and it would be a tedious thing for me here to expose the random attacks which have been made upon this staple. I will simply add, in confirmation of my estimates, that the average production of the five years ending in 1845, of the United States crop, was 2,118,000 bales. The average of the five years, ending with 1850, was 2,264,000. The increase of the last over the first named period is less than 7 per cent., or only 1⅜ per cent. per annum.

In conclusion of this branch of the subject.—SUPPLY OF COTTON—it is to be observed, that the stocks on the first of January, 1850, in the foreign ports, notwithstanding the fullness of the crop of the previous years was reduced to an unusually low figure, and the quantity in the hands of the manufacturers very small. The quantity received in Europe from India, Brazil, &c., has been larger for the past two years than it had been previously; but this appears to be in consequence of the important fact, that they can better send their cotton to England, to be returned in a manufactured state, than to manufacture it in their own rude way, as formerly, just as the old-fashioned cards, wheels and looms in the South have been almost totally abandoned, because we can buy the machine-manufactured goods too cheap to be bothered with making the wares ourselves. I emphatically remark, that there is no indication from the ascertained and established condition of things, that the annual production of cotton for years to come, will equal the annual consumption, for the reasons, that no other country is adapted to its profitable culture; that it cannot and will not be extensively produced for sale, save by slave labor; and that we, having reduced all of our lands very nearly to cultivation which produces it, cannot extend it proportionably to its extending consumption. The opinion I have before submitted in a circular, some years since, appears to have become a fixed fact, "that the production of the limited quantity of new lands annually brought into cultivation, did not more than compensate for the falling off in the old by their deterioration."

The immense number of factories of every sort, rail and plank roads, towns and elegant country mansions building and going into operation South, with our largely increasing population, is demanding the sowing and planting of vastly larger quantities of breadstuffs, than ten years ago were requisite. All of which, by the withdrawing of so much labor faom the production of cotton to the other productions and industrial pursuits, advantageously operate to favor the diminished production of cotton.

Having considered the subject of supply, that of CONSUMPTION OF COTTON will next engage our attention. To my circular of 31st August, 1850, I appended tables exhibiting the increase per cent. of production as well as consumption, for the two periods of 1839-40 to 1843-4, and 1844-5 to 1848-9—each of five years. The increase per cent. of consumption of the latter on the former period was 19½ per cent. The increase of supply or crops of same period, say the five years of 1844-5 to 1848-9 on that of 1839-40 to 1843-4, was about 8 *per cent.* I called attention especially to that extraordinary and gratifying particular, that although the annual consumption was already greater than the annual production of cotton, the ratio of increased consumption was already greater than the ratio of increased production. This cannot be too strongly impressed upon our minds. I also called attention to another fact of commanding importance, viz.: that in the latter period, 661,000 bales of cotton had been consumed which had not been reported in any of the tables I had seen or could hear of—where it has been consumed is not very important for us to know, but it is very important to know that it has been, as it exhibits, the ratio of increase in its proper view, and in rather an exciting one, if we properly understand it.

The English circulars of both last and the year before, observe that a remarkable feature will exhibit itself on the examination of their tables of consumption, and that is, that notwithstanding the high prices which had been noted throughout the year, the consumption had not only not been diminished, but that the only probable check *would be an insufficient supply.* The consumption of the present year will be largely over that of any other in Great Britain, France, and the Continent; and the rapidity of its increase in Russia, Germany, and in the south of Europe, is highly encouraging. I may properly remark here, that important as is the consumption of cotton in France, and also in Germany, that their peasantry have been. and are still relying on flax and hemp for a large proportion of their coarse clothes. Did the 35,000,000 of the French and the 70,000,000 of Germany consume cotton in the ratio that the United States, Great Britain or India do—the crop of the United States, if *doubled*, would not supply their demand. Cotton, however, is spreading rapidly in favor and popularity in those countries. Besides its superiority in both comfort and beauty—its transcendent advantage over flax and hemp, is, that it is manufactured entirely by machinery; whereas, flax and hemp, we must remember, have to be *woven by hand*. The land that produces them too must be highly manured, and the labor of preparing for spinning is very severe, and potatoes or wheat is found a more profitable crop. Cotton is fast superseding other fabrics.

The consumption at the North has fallen off, and the mystery is thus to be solved. The operators in cotton letting the price go down so, compelled the export of large amounts of specie to fill the vacuum produced by the unnatural decline. This exportation caused the northern banks to suspend their accustomed accommodations, and the manufacturers were unable to dictate prices for their manufactures. It is not reasonable to suppose that those who are usually so sagacious will permit this unnatural state of things to be continued. They now must *support* the price of cotton. It is not a mere matter of speculation, but compulsion, as if they *do not*, the vaults of their banks must be effectually drained. Cotton and specie are the only things we have to pay the foreign debt with—that is, if with the little tobacco and rice we export, cotton does not make up the balance, specie must. Will northern capitalists close their eyes to this position? The imports are enormous, and the amount the crop must command, must correspond in a great degree with the amount of the imports.

We now arrive at the question of PRICES OF COTTON.

There are two branches to this subject. One is, what can an article be furnished at, paying its prime cost, and a reasonable profit for the use of the capital employed? This is its worth or value and commonly its price, and the other is —what can be given for a material, having ascertained what it will command in its manufactured state, deduct the cost to manufacture, and the usual profit for the use of the money from that, and the remainder is the worth or value, and ought to be the price of the material. This is merely the philosophy of prices, for each party is apt to use its skill and power to disturb this principle. But let us see for a moment the relative positions the cotton producers and the cotton manufacturers occupy in relation to this value. A few years since, for instance, the cotton planter bought lands at $1 25, and about that, per acre; now $5 to $10 are low prices. Negroes he bought at $350 to $550 a piece; now he pays $700 to $1,000, not to say anything of increased value of provisions. Then the cost of production has been largely enhanced, evidently. A few years since the manufacturer had to keep heavy stocks of goods on hand, and worked with machinery which was, compared to the modern, quite imperfect. He paid a duty on cotton, on his provisions, and money was scarce and interest high, freights high. Now, relieved of duties, with interest low, freights low, demand active for his goods, his machinery wonderfully improved, it is evident that he can afford to pay the producer more for his cotton than formerly, and yet retain equally as fine a profit. This is the relative position of the parties,—but the cotton planter can hold to his cotton longer than the manufacturer can do without it. Were we to hold on to our cottons for *ninety* days, they would not have a bale to go on; and being at our mercy, we could make them give 15 cts.

I may sum up with regard to prices, prospects of consumption and the crop—that every element that could be desired is favorable to the planter. The crop is an average one nearly—and is obliged, from the position and concurrence of things, to command a full, nay, a *high price*. It cannot be avoided. The stock on hand in Europe is fast melting away. France has no cotton at all, we may say, and is actually shivering from fear. Cargoes at sea are bid for. The stocks in England are *lower* now than at this time last year; their receipts in this month and December were unusually heavy, but this year must, from the smallness of the stock of cotton in our ports, be unusually small; while the ratio of their consumption and export is, this year, very much larger than last. Hence the stock in Liverpool on the 1st of January will be so light, that I *look* for a *panic* there *by or before then*, and if so, where will prices go? Money everywhere is abundant. The Bank of England and the Bank of France are encumbered with larger amounts of bullion than they ever had before. The harvests have been fine, food must be cheap, interest is low now and falling, trade is extravagantly good, no wars or rumors of wars. The French Republic seems to be working to suit the *people* of France admirably, though some parties have been in a constant perspiration from the fear that France might do something they would not like.

Should any planter doubt the probability of my correctness, let him remember my circular of 9th January, 1849, issued when middlings here were 5 5-8. I foretold prices would go up, notwithstanding the crop *was* large, and that they would be higher the *next year*, than they might reach *that*. Remember that notwithstanding the country was swept clear, and some 300,000 bales of old cotton was sent to market with that crop altogether, swelling our receipts to 2,729,000 bales—that middling cottons sold *before* the season was out, in the face of all these tremendous receipts, at 10 1-2c., and withal the stock on hand at the end of the year was about the same as the year before, and that our average for the next season was 11 1-2c. Don't forget these things, and that the next year with a crop of 2,355,000 bales we got an average of 11 1-3c. You are sustained in a demand for a full price, by the fact staring you in the face, that you must plant next spring more corn, oats and wheat, and do something about raising hogs, as bacon at 10 to 15c. is higher than cotton would be at 20c. The chances are, you cannot make a large crop next year. You cannot plant the land to do it, and make your corn, &c.

I have refrained from making much allusion to California gold, but as the wealth of the country has been enormously added to already by it, and as all the accounts concur that gold is still abundant there, we are certainly entitled to our share of the advantage it is conferring on the country. To that we may ascribe the swelling prices of property, and if this advances, our productions must feel its effects also.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—TOBACCO TRADE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

We continue to publish in a permanent form for public reference, &c. the commercial statistics of the last year, and shall conclude them perhaps in our next number. They are derived from the New-Orleans Prices Current, and our work contains these tables for a great many years back.

The Tobacco trade, during the past season, has been marked by extraordinary vicissitudes, which have produced remarkable fluctuations in prices; and in tracing the course of our own market, we shall find it necessary to touch, from time to time, upon that of others, by the movements in which ours has been influenced in an unusual degree.

At the commencement of the year the stock in this port, as shown by our tables, was 14,842 hhds, of which amount we estimated that factors held 6,500 hhds., and our quotations then were, for Factory Lugs 5 a 5½; Planters' Lugs 5½ a 6½; Leaf, common, 6¾ a 7¼; Fair to Fine 7½ a 8¼; Choice 8½ a 9 cents per lb. For several months prior to the close of the previous season, we had received from the West, as well as from Virginia and Maryland, very gloomy accounts regarding the crop, which had induced holders to withdraw a large portion of their stocks from the market, and the quantity actually on sale probably did not exceed 2,000 or 2,500 hhds. In the month of September the demand was fair, resulting in sales of about 2,000 hhds., and an advance of ½ cent in prices. On the 8th October, a number of telegraphic dispatches were received, announcing frost in many parts of Kentucky and Tennessee, on the morning of the 5th of that month, and stating that very great injury had been done to the crops. These accounts at once produced a speculative feeling in the market, and prices commenced to tend upward. Further intelligence from the country having fully confirmed the frost news, and this being met by advices of an important improvement in the English markets, the excitement here during the ensuing thirty days was very great, and the advance in so limited a period almost unprecedented. The sales from the 8th October to the 12th November exceeded 6,000 hhds., (being swelled to this amount by a number of re-sales,) and at the latter date our quotations were, for Lugs 7½ a 8; Leaf, inferior to common, 9 a 9½; Fair to Fine, 10 a 11; choice and selections, 11½ a 12½ cents per lb. This important advance, although caused in a great measure, no doubt, by the accounts of the damage done by the frost, and the consequently reduced estimates made of the crop, (the figures of well-informed parties then ranging from 40,000 to 50,000 hhds.,) was attributable in at least as great a degree to the upward movement that had taken place in England *prior to the receipt of the frost news in that country*, the sales in London and Liverpool, during September. having exceeded 4,500 hhds., at an advance of 1d. a 1½ per lb. On the 6th November the London quotations for Western Leaf ranged from 3½d. to 9d., and for Western Strips, from 9d. to 15d. The bulk of the limited stock remaining on sale here in the latter part of November was in the hands of speculators, and a large portion of it having been purchased at high prices but a short time previous, it was not offered freely, even at the very full rates then quoted. The demand for some weeks following was by no means animated, but holders were enabled to realize tolerably steady prices for old crop, until the close of February, at which time the stock of old was reduced to a very low point. Of the *new crop* the first receipt was on the 14th December, an unusually late period, which tended to strengthen the impression that the extent of the yield would approximate to the lower estimates that had been made, and the smallness of the arrivals for some months served to confirm this belief. The proportion of *frosted* Tobacco in the early receipts was large, and went to show that the farmers had been induced by the high prices current here and elsewhere, to prepare and send to market an article that, at other times, they probably would have left in the fields. The extent to which this has contributed in producing the great decline that has since taken place, it would be difficult to determine; but that it was very great no one can doubt. And we may here remark with regard to the quality of the past crop, that although a small portion of it, from certain sections, has been equal, if not superior, to any that we have had here for some years past, the bulk of it has proved to be exceedingly deficient in size, substance and color.

Early in March it became known that the contract for the supply of the French Government had not been adjudicated, the Regie having rejected the lowest bids. During March the arrivals increased greatly, and before the end of that month we had become apprised that the manufacturers of England were making a determined stand, with every prospect of succeeding, against the holders of the very heavy stock then in the London and Liverpool markets, a large portion of which was known to be held on speculation by comparatively few parties. At this juncture the New-York market began to droop, the stock here was rapidly accumulating, and the history of our market for the subsequent three months may be summed up in a few words: with a large and steadily increasing stock, and with generally but one, and never more than two, large buyers operating, prices went down with almost as great rapidity as they had gone up the previous fall. Indeed, for many weeks it may be said, (and we so remarked at the time,) that we had *no market;* for the value of any description of Tobacco could not be fixed with any degree of accuracy, and many sales were forced at constantly reduced figures. This state of things continued until about the middle of July, at which period the receipts amounted to 56,296 hhds. against 53,957 the previous year, and the stock on sale was estimated at about 16,000 hhds.; our quotations were, for Frosted 2 a 3; Planters' Lugs 3½ a 4½; Leaf, inferior to common, 5 a 5¾; Fair to Fine, 6¼ a 7; Choice and Selections 7½ a 8½ cents per lb. These low prices brought buyers out more generally, and in the last twenty days of July the sales amounted to nearly 7,000 hhds., prices recovering during that period to the extent of ½ a ¾ cent, and on some qualities 1 cent per pound. Since the beginning of August the demand has been moderate, but holders have shown no disposition to push off their stocks; and the sales of the month, which sum up about 4,000 hhds., have been at steady rates, the quotations being as follows—*Frosted* 2½ a 3½; *Lugs*, planters', 3¾ a 5; *Leaf*, inferior to common, 5½ a 6; Fair to Fine 6½ a 7; Choice and Selections 7½ a 9 cents per lb. We close our tables with receipts for the past twelve months of 64,030 hhds., and with a stock on hand, including all on shipboard not cleared, of 23,771 hhds., of which 10,000 hhds. are held by factors.

With respect to the growing crop, we have to remark that the advices have varied exceedingly from time to time. In the spring it was stated that the planting was unusually large. In June and July there were great complaints of drought in nearly every section, and a large proportion of the planting was said to have been lost in consequence of the lack of rain. Within the last two or three weeks, however, we have received accounts of refreshing showers, by which it is stated the crop has been greatly improved; and although there is no longer a probability of so heavy a yield as was anticipated by many some months ago, on the other hand there would seem to be little likelihood of any serious deficiency in the supply.

The defects in the quality of the crop, to which we have already alluded, are attributable to the unfavorable seasons for planting, growing and curing, which the farmers have had to contend with; but we deem it proper to remark, that probably no Tobacco crop has ever been sent forward, upon the preparation of which for market so little care appeared to have been bestowed. We allude to this solely with a view of calling the attention of the farmers to the fact, that if they wish to sustain the character of this market, it will be incumbent on them to give at least a reasonable share of care and attention to the *handling*, *sorting* and *prizing* of their crops.

2.—MONTHLY ARRIVALS OF FLAT-BOATS.

MONTHS.	Ohio.	Kentucky.	Indiana.	Virginia.	Pennsylva.	Illinois.	Missouri.	Iowa.	Arkansas.	Alabama.	Tennessee.	Mississip'i.	TOTAL.
September	12	5	3	2	11	..	..	..	..	..	9	..	42
October	2	3	8	1	9	..	..	..	..	..	2	..	25
November	3	4	7	..	13	2	..	..	..	..	4	..	33
December	27	3	22	..	28	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	80
January	72	3	28	1	12	..	..	..	..	..	3	..	119
February	19	4	9	1	27	..	..	..	..	..	10	..	70
March	35	6	111	..	15	9	..	..	..	..	1	2	179
April	10	7	44	3	29	5	..	..	..	..	27	7	132
May	11	11	40	1	32	3	..	..	..	..	10	1	109
June	21	3	16	1	17	..	..	..	..	..	7	..	65
July	2	6	2	..	16	..	..	..	..	..	14	..	40
August	4	3	8	2	13	..	..	..	..	..	17	..	47
Total	218	58	298	12	222	19	..	..	..	..	104	10	941

3.—COMPARATIVE PRICES OF FLOUR AT NEW-ORLEANS ON THE FIRST OF EACH MONTH, FOR FIVE YEARS:

	1850-'51.	'49-'50.	'48-'49.	'47-'48.	'46-'47.
September	$4 62½ a 5 12½	4 50 a 5 75	4 00 a 4 75	4 75 a 6 00	3 50 a 4 00
October	4 00 a 5 12½	5 00 a 5 62½	5 00 a 5 25	4 00 a 5 00	4 00 a 4 62
November	4 25 a 5 25	4 75 a 5 50	4 75 a 5 12½	5 25 a 5 62½	5 00 a 5 50
December	4 50 a 5 12½	5 00 a 5 50	4 62½ a 5 00	5 12½ a 6 00	4 87½ a 5 37½
January	4 25 a 5 00	5 00 a 5 62½	4 25 a 4 75	5 50 a 6 00	4 37½ a 5 25½
February	4 25 a 5 00	5 12½ a 5 75	4 12½ a 5 00	4 75 a 5 25	6 00 a 6 50
March	4 00 a 4 75	5 25 a 6 00	4 50 a 5 25	5 00 a 5 75	5 50 a 6 25
April	4 00 a 4 87½	5 62½ a 6 75	4 12½ a 5 00	5 25 a 5 87½	6 00 a 6 25
May	4 12½ a 5 00	5 37½ a 6 75	3 87½ a 5 00	4 25 a 5 25	5 75 a 6 50
June	3 75 a 4 75	6 75 a 7 87½	4 50 a 5 25	4 25 a 4 75	6 75 a 7 50
July	3 25 a 4 75	5 50 a 7 25	3 87½ a 5 00	4 25 a 5 00	6 00 a 7 00
August	4 00 a 5 25	4 00 a 6 75	6 00 a 7 50	4 00 a 4 62½	4 00 a 5 50

4.—COMPARATIVE PRICES OF MESS AND PRIME PORK.

	Mess, 1850-'51.	Prime, 1850-'51.	Mess, 1849-'50.	Prime, 1849'-50.
September	$10 25 a 10 50	8 50 a 9 00	9 25 a 9 50	8 25 a 8 37½
October	10 25 a 10 37½	8 75 a 9 00	9 75 a 10 00	8 37½ a 8 50
November	11 25 a 12 00	8 25 a 8 75	9 37½ a 9 50	8 25 a 8 50
December	11 37½ a 11 75	8 12½ a 8 50	9 37½ a 9 50	8 50 a 8 75
January	11 75 a 12 00	9 00 a —	10 50 a 11 00	8 00 a —
February	12 50 a 13 00	10 50 a 11 00	9 25 a 9 50	7 37½ a 7 62½
March	12 50 a 13 00	11 00 a 11 50	9 50 a 10 00	7 37½ a 7 50
April	13 00 a 13 50	10 75 a 11 25	9 37½ a 9 62½	7 37 a 7 50
May	14 00 a 14 75	11 75 a 12 25	9 50 a 9 75	7 75 a 8 00
June	14 50 a 14 75	12 00 a 12 50	9 75 a 10 00	8 25 a 8 50
July	14 00 a 14 37½	12 00 a 12 50	— a 12 00	9 50 a —
August	15 00 a 15 25	12 50 a 13 00	11 50 a 11 75	— a 9 75

5.—COMPARATIVE PRICES OF CORN, IN SACKS.

	1850–'51.	1849–'50.	1848–'49.	1847–'48.	1846–'47.
September ... Cents	53 a 63	35 a 46	52 a 57	50 a 55	36 a 40
October	50 a 60	42 a 48	48 a 53	50 a 75	60 a 65
November	70 a 75	50 a 55	52 a 58	41 a 50	58 a 75
December	70 a —	46 a 52	42 a 51	45 a 50	60 a 70
January	60 a 65	— a 47	35 a 40	54 a 60	55 a 67
February	60 a 68	45 a 50	34 a 43	40 a 55	80 a 90
March	52 a 58	50 a 57	30 a 41	36 a 42	75 a 90
April	50 a 58	50 a 56	20 a 40	30 a 38	80 a 95
May	46 a 54	76 a 83	30 a 45	22 a 28	55 a 70
June	38 a 51	64 a 70	50 a 55	32 a 36	65 a 80
July	34 a 57	75 a 85	50 a 53	33 a 39	65 a 75
August	34 a 60	75 a 85	50 a 56	36 a 42	40 a 55

6.—IMPORTS OF SPECIE AT NEW-ORLEANS FOR FOUR YEARS, FROM 1ST SEPTEMBER TO 31ST AUGUST:

1850–'51	$7,937,119	1847–'48	$1,845,808
1849–'50	3,792,662	1846–'47	6,680,050
1848–'49	2,501,250		

7.—DIRECT IMPORTS OF COFFEE, SUGAR AND SALT AT N. ORLEANS

	1850–'51.	1849–50.	1848–49.
Coffee, Havana, bags	10,367	20,627	16,341
Coffee, Rio, bags	274,690	225,013	299,129
Sugar, Havana, boxes	29,293	16,843	14,775
Salt, Liverpool, sacks	420,838	468,932	508,517
Salt, Turks Island, &c., bush	419,685	583,183	249,001

8.—FOREIGN COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS:

TONNAGE CLEARED.

July to September, 1850.

	No. Vessels.	Tonnage.
American for foreign ports	109	44,549 63
Foreign	52	19,866 96
Coastwise	199	57,442 30
	306	121,858 94

October to December, 1850.

American for foreign ports	114	53,946 18
Foreign	66	20,937 40
Coastwise	275	76,789 20
	455	151,672 78

January to March, 1851.

American for foreign ports	188	85,747 51
Foreign	119	53,761 56
Coastwise	424	121,362 03
	731	260,871 15

April to June, 1851.

American for foreign ports	234	108,715 82
Foreign	88	34,383 15
Coastwise	329	97,579 68
	651	240,678 72

RECAPITULATION.

Total third quarter, 1850	360	121,858 94
" 4th " "	455	151,672 78
" 1st " 1851	731	260,871 15
" 2d " "	651	240,678 72
	2197	775,081 69
Total to June, 1851		775,081 69
The year previous		773,783 19
Difference		1,298 50

TONNAGE ENTERED.

July to September, 1850.

	No. vessels.	Tonnage.
American from foreign ports	61	16,176 94
Foreign	42	14,347 29
Coastwise	205	63,083 40
	308	93,607 62

October to December, 1850.

American from foreign ports	158	61,487 57
Foreign	106	40,827 33
Coastwise	303	124,585 02
	567	226,899 92

January to March, 1851.

American from foreign ports	178	64,104 41
Foreign	97	45,207 51
Coastwise	365	125,032 82
	640	234,344 79

April to June, 1851.

American from foreign ports	146	53,368 22
Foreign	88	36,617 58
Coastwise	305	123,189 65
	539	213,175 50

RECAPITULATION.

Total 3d quarter, 1850	308	93,607 68
" 4th " "	567	226,899 92
" 1st " 1851	640	234,344 79
" 2d " "	539	213,175 50
	2054	768,028 04
Total to June., 1851		768,028 04
The year previous		763,634 58
Difference		4,393 41

9.—FOREIGN EXPORTS AT NEW-ORLEANS.

AMERICAN PRODUCE.

American Vessels to Foreign Countries.

Third quarter, 1850	$6,078,397
Fourth quarter, 1850	7,983,399
First quarter, 1851	11,431,425
Second quarter, 1851	12,529,388
	$38,022,609

Foreign Vessels to Foreign Countries.

Third quarter, 1850	$2,103,110
Fourth quarter, 1850	2,719,728
First quarter, 1851	7,692,659
Second quarter, 1851	3,449,907
	$15,965,404

Coastwise.

Third quarter, 1850	$2,859,567
Fourth quarter, 1850	6,177,128
First quarter, 1851	11,707,593
Second quarter, 1851	6,484,624
	27,228,912

Total Foreign	$53,988,013
" Coastwise	27,228,912
Grand total	$81,216,925

FOREIGN PRODUCE.

American Vessels to Foreign Countries.

Third quarter, 1850	$55,192
Fourth quarter, 1850	158,316
First quarter, 1851	91,313
Second quarter, 1851	83,445
	$388,265

Foreign Vessels to Foreign Countries.

Third quarter, 1850	$14,616
Fourth quarter, 1850	18,255
First quarter, 1851	13,140
Second quarter, 1851	11,674
	57,685
Grand total	$445,950

10.—RECEIPTS BY THE NEW CANAL, NEW-ORLEANS.

Statement of Produce received in the New Basin, for the year ending Aug. 31, 1851.

Cotton, bales	40,329
Lumber, yellow pine and cypress, feet	33,107,000
Wood—oak, ash and pine, cords	27,828
Bricks	24,000,000
Sand, barrels	197,600
Shells, barrels	52,200
Charcoal, barrels	110,600
Tar, barrels	2,239
Shingles	2,392,000
Laths	3,160,000
Staves	632,000
Sash and doors, pairs	7,800
Spirits turpentine, barrels	3,094
Rosin, barrels	10,250
Salt, sacks	15,799
Cotton Gins	549
Hides	3,955
Corn Mills	70
Domestics, bales	959
Sheep skins, bales	8
Hay, bales	35
Buckets, dozen	632
Tobacco, leaf, boxes	758
Merchandise, boxes	22
Moss, bales	205
Cotton seed, bags	95
Wool, bags	30
Sugar, hogsheads	970
Molasses, barrels	772
Fish, barrels	51
Camphene, barrels	6
Knees	1,480
Pickets	24,900
Clap-boards	43,900
Gunny Bags, bales	135
Hoop Poles	40,000
Horned Cattle	200
Pork, barrels	95
Beeswax, boxes	1
Paper, bundles	61
Castor Oil, cans	81
Lime, barrels	1,002
Hemp, bales	20
Lime, casks	129
Cement, barrels	150
Plaster, hogsheads	12

11.—UNITED STATES BRANCH MINT.

Statement of the Deposits and Coinage at the Branch Mint, New-Orleans, from the 1st of August, 1850, to the 31st of July, 1851, inclusive:

GOLD DEPOSITS.

California gold bullion,	$8,152,878 82	
Other gold bul.	132,758 32	
Total gold dep't		$8,285,637 14

SILVER DEPOSITS.

Silver extracted from California gold	$57,571 61	
Other silver bullion	764,513 64	
Total silver dep'ts		$822,085 25
Total value of gold and silver deposits		9,107,722 39

GOLD COINAGE, 1850–'51.

	Pieces.	Value.	
Double eagles	333,500	$6,670,000	
Eagles	149,500	1,495,000	
Half Eagles	33,000	165,000	
Quar. Eagles	204,000	510,000	
Gold Dollars	154,000	154.000	
			$8,994,000

SILVER COINAGE.

	Pieces.	Value.
Dollars	3,000	$3,000
Half Dollars	1,712,000	856,000
Quar. Dollars	276,000	69,000
Dimes	530,000	53,000
Half Dimes	1,030,000	51,500
Three Cent Pcs.	600,000	18,000
	4,151,000	$1,050,500
Total coinage	5,025,000	$10,044,500

12.—COMMERCE OF CHARLESTON.

Statement of Cotton and Rice at Charleston.

	From September 1, 1850, to Aug. 31, 1851.			From September 1, 1849, to Aug. 31, 1850.		
Exported to	*S. I.*	*Upl'd.*	*Rice.*	*S. I.*	*Upl'd.*	*Rice.*
Liverpool	11244	175320	4853	11858	137559	8181
Scotland	11	7341	1	13	5549	2
Other British ports	—	10054	9260	—	10644	11375
Total Great Britain	11255	192715	14114	11871	153752	19558
Havre	2321	21034	2918	2495	29695	4577
Marseilles	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other French ports	—	2253	2209	—	892	2831
Total France	2321	23287	5127	2495	30587	7408
Holland	—	814	2401	—	2068	3268
Belgium	—	3299	2500	—	4130	5322
North of Europe	—	9046	17234	—	2746	21571
Total N. of Europe	—	13159	22135	—	8944	30341
South of Europe	—	25281	697	—	19922	260
West Indies, &c.	—	—	19010	—	—	16416
Total foreign ports	13576	254442	61083	14366	213205	73982
Boston	10	16774	8161	30	22690	8182
Rhode Island, &c	19	2435	20	18	4556	157
New-York	2181	102004	29317	2023	99863	30022
Philadelphia	—	11138	5848		15564	5133
Baltimore & Norfolk	—	7890	5203	—	9236	4405
New-Orleans, &c	—	—	15284	—	—	12284
Other U. S. ports	—	—	250	—	152	250
Total coastwise	2210	140241	64083	2071	152122	60434
Grand total	15786	394683	125166	16437	365327	134417

Comparative Export of Rough Rice and Lumber, from the Port of Charleston.

	From Sept. 1, 1850, to Aug. 31, '51.		From Sept. 1, '49, to Aug. 31, '5	
Exported to	R. Rice, bus.	Lumber, ft.	R. Rice, bus.	Lumber, feet.
Liverpool	57902	8000	42824	345059
London	165015	—	202960	—
Other British ports	100	68434	—	124944
Total to Great Britain	223017	76434	245784	470003
Havre	75	28693	2071	48422
Bordeaux	21147	332725	26032	15970
Other French ports	—	4316	—	—
Total France	21222	365725	28103	64392
North of Europe	138133	995901	254017	1328408
South of Europe	—	654816	—	1083636
West Indies, &c	—	1536867	—	1813402
Total foreign ports	382372	3629733	527904	4759841
Boston	40204	647312	3733	209005
Rhode Island, &c	—	2462758	—	2413760
New-York	21147	1033234	50195	750500
Philadelphia	—	5017334	—	5918304
Baltimore and Norfolk	—	3321060	—	1283407
Other United States ports	—	2023800	—	3372168
Total coastwise	61351	14505498	53928	13947144
Grand total	443723	18135231	581832	18706985

13.—COMMERCE OF MOBILE.

Exports of Sawed Lumber from this Port since September 1st, 1850.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	This week.	Previously.	Total.	Last season.
Cuba	—	2104862	2104862	968471
Mexico	—	268523	268523	250924
Other ports	—	12420	12420	334718
Coastwise	230680	4199569	4430249	4739783
Total	230680	6585374	6816054	7293896

Exports of Staves from this Port since 1st September, 1850.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	This week.	Previously.	Total.	Last year.
Cuba	—	8000	8000	—
Mexico	—	—	—	—
Other ports	727	105099	105826	272019
Coastwise	36540	210413	246953	405924
Total	37267	323512	360779	677943

Comparative Exports of Staves from this Port for four years, to date.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	1850–'51.	1849–'50.	1848–'49.	1847–'48
Cuba	8000	—	24500	21000
Mexico	—	—	—	—
Other ports	105826	272019	87070	328240
Coastwise	246953	405924	141820	212960
Total	360779	677943	253390	562200

Comparative Exports of Sawed Lumber from this Port for five years, to date.

WHITHER EXPORTED.	'50-'51	'49-'50.	'48 '49.	'47-'48.	'46-'47.
Cuba	2104862	1968471	333290	1373548	329173
Mexico	268523	250924	264189	1094294	878479
Other ports	12420	334718	190308	414028	216636
Coastwise	4430249	4739783	4499286	4737223	4309846
Total	6816054	7293896	7619093	5734134	3597253

Exports of Timber, &c., from this Port since September 1st, 1850, *to date.*

ARTICLES.	Great Britain.	France.	Other ports.	Coastwise.	Total.
Timber, pieces	100	1473	302	—	1875
Spars	—	414	130	—	544
Masts	—	2	59	—	61
D'k Plank, feet	—	7560	88317	—	95877
Oars	—	1891	—	—	1891
Shingles	—	—	92000	203000	295000
Cedar, Logs	—	—	—	1315	1315
Laths	—	—	6000	—	6000

Statement of the Value of Imports and Duties at this Port for the third and fourth quarters of 1850, *and the first and second quarters of* 1851.

Third Quarter, 1850.

Value of imports, dutiable	7,640
Value of imports, free	35,456
Total imports	$43,096

Amount of duties collected, $4,249 90.

Fourth Quarter, 1850.

Value of imports, dutiable	76,069
Value of imports, free	84,360
Total imports	$160,429

Amount of duties collected, $25,043 20.

First Quarter, 1851.

Value of imports, dutiable	101,632
Value of imports, free	23,223
Total imports	$124,255

Amount of duties collected, $33,566 44.

Second Quarter, 1851.

Value of imports, dutiable	105,024
Value of imports, free	7,600
Total imports	$112,624

Amount of duties col'd, $33,417 40.

Total amount of imports	$440,404
Total amount of duties collected for the past year	$96,276 94

14.—COMMERCE OF CINCINNATI.

We are indebted for the following to the Cincinnati Prices Current:

Imports into Cincinnati for five years, commencing September 1st, and ending August 31st, each year:

ARTICLES.	1846-'47.	1847-'48.	1848-'49.	1849-'50.	1850-'51.
Apples, green, barrels	26992	28674	22109	6445	16934
Beef, barrels	186	659	348	801	1101
Beef, tierces	5	—	27	15	18
Bagging, pieces	5561	79228	2094	324	—
Barley, bushels	79390	165528	87460	137925	111257
Beans, bushels	11688	8757	3067	5565	31037
Butter, barrels	6345	6625	7721	3674	8259
Butter, firks. & kegs	7090	6405	7999	7487	11043
Blooms, tons	2017	2203	9519	2545	2727
Bran, &c., sacks	14594	1941	21995	49075	50976
Candles, boxes	207	133	414	718	697
Corn, bushels	896258	361315	344810	649227	489195
Corn Meal	56775	29542	5504	3688	5508
Cider, barrels	3261	2289	4346	453	1047
Cheese, casks	483	164	281	97	74
Cheese, boxes	120301	138800	143265	165940	205444
Cotton, bales	12528	13476	9058	8551	7168
Coffee, sacks	59337	80242	74961	67170	91177
Codfish, drums	292	311	515	464	441
Cooperage, pieces	186186	179946	147352	201711	146691
Eggs, bxs. and bbls	561	4035	4504	2041	5956
Flour, barrels	512597	151518	447844	231859	482772
Feathers, sacks	2768	4467	4908	3432	2858
Fish, sund, barrels	16836	19215	18146	14527	19826
Fish, kegs and kits	2142	725	1059	1290	2694
Fruit, dried, bushels	82871	27464	38317	11802	41824
Grease, barrels	482	585	878	1169	876
Glass, boxes	18002	20281	33868	34945	37099
Glassware, packages	17121	15025	19209	25712	28619
Hemp, bundles and bales	26678	15349	11161	12062	13254
Hides, loose	24376	33745	23766	30280	8132
Hides, green, lbs	7513	10829	22774	14181	25424
Hay, bales	7049	8036	12751	14452	12691
Herring, boxes	1603	4191	2960	3546	3832
Hogs, head	38774	49847	52176	60902	111485
Hops, bales	1064	645	238	799	756
Iron and Steel, pieces	188215	197120	187864	186832	225039
Iron and Steel, bundles	33463	34213	29889	55168	66809
Iron and Steel, tons	1685	827	1768	2019	2570
Lead, pigs	43675	39607	45544	49197	59413
Lard, barrels	21991	37978	28514	34173	36848
Lard, kegs	22722	41714	48187	63327	31087
Leather, bundles	5069	6579	6975	9620	10397
Lemons, boxes	2185	3068	4181	4183	3379
Lime, barrels	32016	63364	61278	56482	57537
Liquors, hhds. and pipes	3369	3115	4476	5802	1465
Merchandise & sund. pks	263940	381537	68582	308523	175138
" " tons	7941	7308	837	4540	3370
Molasses, barrels	27218	51001	52591	54003	61490
Malt, bushels	12562	7999	29910	41982	21356
Nails, kegs	54918	59983	55893	83073	83761
Oil, barrels	5663	6618	7427	5049	6764
Oranges, boxes and bbls	4137	5007	4317	6819	9302
Oakum, bales	1100	1486	1423	1799	1739
Oats, bushels	372127	194557	185723	191924	164238
Oil Cake, pounds	2225988	2811793	1767421	27870	194000
Pork and Bacon, hhds	5476	4420	6178	7564	6277
Pork and Bacon, tierces	124	140	465	2358	1183
Pork and Bacon, barrels	40581	69828	44267	43227	31595
Pork, in bulk, pounds	8027399	9643063	9249380	1325756	14631330
Potatoes, barrels	15829	22439	17269	3898	19649
Pig Metal, tons	15868	21145	15612	17211	19110
Pimento & Pepper, bags	3180	3455	1257	2558	2027

Imports into Cincinnati, continued.

ARTICLES.	1846-'47.	1847-'48.	1848-'49.	1849-'50.	1850-'51.
Rye, bushels	41016	24336	22233	23397	44308
Rosin, &c., barrels	5004	11668	3298	12349	12511
Raisins, boxes	11990	22795	14927	11936	15648
Rope, Twine, &c	8003	7806	3950	3061	2007
Rice, tierces	1145	2494	3365	3556	4783
Sugar, hogsheads	16649	27153	22685	26760	29808
Sugar, barrels	7196	11175	7575	13005	18584
Sugar, boxes	5117	2928	1847	2467	3612
Seed, flax, barrels	25753	32060	22859	15570	20319
Seed, grass	4964	4968	5929	4432	4104
Seed, Hemp	290	214	510	314	68
Salt, sacks	56292	65265	76985	110650	50474
Salt, barrels	124360	94722	76496	114107	79358
Shot, kegs	1118	809	818	1447	1567
Tea, packages	5443	2931	7412	9802	7821
Tobacco, hogsheads	6200	4051	3471	3213	3701
Tobacco, bales	822	1229	1311	887	1697
Tobacco, boxes and kegs	9241	14815	12463	17772	19945
Tallow, barrels	1748	2473	1829	1225	3682
Wines, bbls. and qr. cks	4006	2251	2663	6874	3401
Wines, bkts. and boxes	1419	2272	2101	4296	5060
Wheat, bushels	590809	570813	385388	322699	388660
Wool, bales	2960	1943	1686	1277	1866
Whiskey, barrels	184639	170436	165419	186678	244044
Cotton Yarn, packages	9271	6403	5562	3494	5577
Cotton, bales	146541	288095	262893	174885	124594

Exports from Cincinnati for two years.

ARTICLES.	1849-'50.	1850-'51.	ARTICLES.	1849-'50.	1850-'51.
Apples, green, barrels	3519	8064	Lard Oil, barrels	16984	26110
Alcohol, barrels	3302	5038	Linseed Oil, barrels	4879	7821
Beef, barrels	7558	19937	Molasses, barrels	25878	25098
Beef, tierces	6625	9356	Oil Cake, tons	743	963
Beans, barrels	2469	1832	Oats, sacks	5023	11707
Brooms, dozen	7355	8735	Potatoes, barrels	5283	19823
Butter, barrels	964	3258	Pork and Bacon, hhds	23529	30200
Butter, firkins and kegs	24393	36195	Pork and Bacon, tcs	22477	20762
Bran, &c., sacks	4322	5789	Pork and Bacon, bbls	193581	122086
Bagging, pieces	9353	8212	P'k & Bacon, bulk, lbs	13448	2974
Corn, sacks	57248	20137	Pork, boxes	2310699	4753953
Corn Meal, barrels	1179	2148	Rope, &c., packages	3151	6272
Cheese, casks	106	25	Soap, boxes	17443	21553
Cheese, boxes	86902	121755	Sheep, head	—	460
Candles, boxes	67447	113412	Sugar, hogsheads	9650	13000
Cattle, head	30	440	Salt, barrels	29509	28585
Cotton, bales	1896	5132	Salt, sacks	8301	7144
Coffee, sacks	22030	38158	Seed, flax, bbls	333	443
Cooperage, pieces	73637	63804	Sundry mdze., pkgs	615641	349181
Eggs, barrels	4246	7258	Sundry mdze., tons	11109	10350
Flour, barrels	98908	390131	Sundry liquors, bbls	11798	19297
Feathers, sacks	5380	4095	Sundry man'fac's, pcs	56810	22103
Fruit, dried, bushels	1850	17480	Sundry produce, pkgs	10327	13958
Grease, barrels	7597	4426	Starch, boxes	9491	14109
Grass, seed, barrels	2528	2830	Tallow	4311	5927
Horses, head	468	599	Tobacco, kegs and boxes	6905	18345
Hay, bales	564	638	Tobacco, hogsheads	4847	2856
Hemp, bales	1164	3112	Tobacco, bales	77	160
Hides, lbs	62965	48079	Vinegar, barrels	2404	3756
Hides, number	11225	12459	Whiskey, barrels	179540	231324
Iron, pieces	54075	108255	Wool, bales	2156	2725
Iron, bundles	36245	44110	Wool, pounds	16841	4836
Iron, tons	5767	9776	White Lead, kegs	40294	50857
Lard, barrels	38192	30391	Pieces Castings	54399	136266
Lard, kegs	170167	71300	Pieces Castings, tons	2385	1121

Value of specific articles imported into Cincinnati from September 1, 1850, *to September* 1, 1851, *and the corresponding time last season.*

	1850–'51.			
ARTICLES.	Amount.	Average price.	Total value.	Last season.
Apples, barrels	16934	$1 00	$16934	$11278
Beef, barrels	1101	11 00	11010	7299
Barley, bushels	111257	90	100131	103443
Butter, barrels	8259	12	99108	99196
Butter, kegs	110431	10	110430	59869
Blooms, tons	2727	60 00	165620	152700
Corn, bushels	489195	40	195662	246706
Cheese, boxes	205444	2 00	410888	396206
Cotton, bales	7168	40 00	286720	384795
Coffee, sacks	91177	10	91177	1310633
Flour, barrels	482772	3 50	1689702	1101329
Hemp, bales	13254	15 00	198810	168868
Hogs, head	334000	7 50	2505000	2460000
Lead, pigs	59413	3 00	207945	167208
Lard, barrels	36889	17 50	64557	444246
Lard, kegs	31087	3 50	108804	151984
Molasses, barrels	61490	12 00	733880	594033
Oats, bushels	163258	35	11140	57577
Bacon, hogsheads	6277	50 00	313850	249579
Bacon, tierces	1183	25 00	29575	28296
Pork, barrels	31595	12 00	37940	381350
Pork, pounds	14637330	5½	804723	497156
Pig Metal, tons	16110	25 00	402950	447486
Rice, tierces	4783	25 00	119575	85344
Sugar, hogsheads	29808	60 00	1708480	1364763
Sugar, barrels	18584	14 00	260176	195075
Sugar, boxes	3612	30 00	108360	57208
Wheat, bushels	588660	70	272062	302756
Whiskey, barrels	244047	8 00	1952376	1660102

The total value of the above this year is $13,146,348, against $12,668,379 last year.

Destination of specified articles exported from the Port of Cincinnati.

COMMODITIES.	To New-Orleans.	To other down river ports.	To up river ports.	Via canals and railways.	By flat-boats.
Beef, barrels	19319	68	314	236	1611
Beef, tierces	8677	8	657	14	96
Butter, barrels	1850	867	2	539	—
Butter, firkins and kegs	35200	959	15	8	315
Corn, sacks	15672	3519	156	790	—
Cheese	69258	48432	2165	1900	920
Candles, boxes	76245	20272	10695	6195	522
Cotton, bales	—	10	3182	1940	
Coffee, sacks	10	12439	7853	17856	—
Flour, barrels	281609	95943	7719	4859	95877
Iron, pieces	6608	54894	6634	40119	—
Iron, bundles	1503	25281	2182	15144	—
Iron, tons	64	1341	219	8152	117
Lard, barrels	22854	117	3277	4143	1821
Lard, kegs	56380	5358	5739	2823	1587
Lard oil, barrels	13617	1547	3726	7220	—
Linseed oil	4443	1362	1042	974	—
Molasses	33	2665	12711	9589	—
Pork, hogsheads	19044	1313	8809	1054	1312
Pork, tierces	11341	18	8759	644	42
Pork, barrels	112622	1055	3801	4608	3781
Pork, pounds	1345860	755860	1559280	1092953	525820
Soap, boxes	9425	6440	3600	2068	375
Sugar, hogsheads	—	1426	4378	7196	—
Whiskey, barrels	140661	56164	31231	3268	17980

Average price N. O. sugar and molasses, Rio coffee, corn, flour and wheat, at Cincinnati.

MONTHS.	N. O. Molasses.	N. O. Sugar.	Rio Coffee.	Corn.	Flour.	Wheat.
September...cents	34¾	7	12½	49	$3 55	70
October	35	6¾	12	44	3 57	70
November	33	5⅞	11	33	3 54	68½
December	29¾	6	11½	37	3 68	75
January	28½	6½	15⅜	39½	3 67	76
February	29¾	6	12	39⅛	3 52	71¾
March	32	5½	11⅜	37	3 43	67
April	33½	6	11⅜	37	3 48	71
May	34	6½	10½	37	3 47	70½
June	34	6⅜	9¾	37	3 35	70¾
July	33	6½	9⅜	37	3 15	63
August	33	6	9⅜	37	3 20	69

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES.

1.—INDIA COTTON AND MANUFACTURES.

The last letter of the London correspondent of the National Intelligencer, gives us the following items concerning the cultivation of cotton and manufactures in India:

"The annual crop of cotton, and the ability of different countries to furnish that raw material to the manufacturers of England, is every day becoming a subject of increasing importance. The capability of India to furnish this raw material to a considerable extent, has never been doubted; but hitherto there have been great difficulties in forwarding it from the place of growth to the port of shipment for Europe. These difficulties are, however, rapidly diminishing, and the quantity received thence in England, has increased from 70,000,000 pounds weight, in 1849, to nearly 120,000,000 pounds in 1850: the former being about nine per cent. of the whole quantity imported into England, the latter about eighteen per cent. of that importation. The proportion this year will be still larger.

"The Great Exhibition, which has just closed, has not only presented numerous samples of the raw cotton of India, but has also shown us the great degree of perfection to which the natives of that country have, by mere manual operation, unassisted almost entirely by European science and mechanism, brought their manufactures of cotton. Muslin tissues have been exhibited, ten yards long and one yard wide, weighing only 3 oz. 2 dwts. each, and capable of being passed through a wedding ring. They are literally of a gossamer texture, and more resemble what might be the work of fairies than the produce of human fingers. We have, indeed, hitherto known more of the law and deceitful politics and contemptible policy of the rulers, both native and European, of India, than of the patience and industry, the ingenuity and skill, the social arts and admirable ability of the people. The exhibition has given a new turn to our thoughts. India will henceforward receive a large additional share of the attention of the merchants and manufacturers of England, as well as more of the fostering care of the government, and the benevolent regards of philanthropists, and of all who really wish to improve the condition of a hundred millions of human beings. India has been renowned for her muslin fabrics for more than sixteen hundred years; yet how few of the six millions of the visitors to the Crystal Palace ever before possessed the means of beholding a sample of those fabrics! It is not probable, however, that these cobweb-like tissues, beautiful and wonderful as they are, will produce any great effect upon the general distribution of the trade and commerce of the world. They, as well as many other proofs of the skill and capability of the natives which the Exhibition contained, cannot fail to excite an endeavor to turn that skill and capability to a more profitable purpose than they have hitherto been employed in; thereby improving the condition of the people and adding to the resources of the British empire. Parliament will, undoubtedly, during the next session, earnestly take up the affairs of India, particularly with respect to the produce of cotton and the means of facilitating its importation to Europe; and, although the manufacturers of Manchester and Bolton must, for several years to come, under any circumstances, rely for the principal portion of the raw material upon the United States, it is equally true that every year will find them more and more independent of the casualties which may arise from their being dependent upon a single market. It must also be borne in mind, that there is every year a remarkable increase in the consumption of cotton fabrics, and there is as little chance of raw cotton becoming a drug in the market, through an undue proportion between its supply and the demand for it, as there is of gold becoming too plentiful from the discovery of the rich mines of California and Australia."

2.—MANUFACTURES AT THE SOUTH.

The history of manufactures is a singular and useful one, whether we regard it as a matter of industrial enterprise or political speculation. Nations as well as individuals are sometimes compelled to serve apprenticeships, and nothing illustrates this remark so well as the history of those countries, which, by their manufactures, have become wealthy and independent. We will go no further back than to the time when England was in a condition of vassalage to Holland and the Netherlands, in respect to this most important feature of her industry and greatness. The markets of London, we are informed, were filled "with iron, lumber, and leather, ready manufactured. The English grew food for the Dutch, and the Dutch ate it; wool for the Dutch, and the Dutch wove it." But this condition lasted only long enough for England to become as thoroughly acquainted with manufacturing as her taskmaster was; when, throwing off the shackles which made her dependent, that imperial system of British manufactures was established, which has reared an empire the most magnificent in wealth and power the world has ever seen.

America, in her colonial condition, was to Great Britain what Great Britain had been to the German States. The house of commons so considered it, when they declared "that the erecting of manufactories in the colonies tended to lesson their dependence upon the mother country." It is well known to every one at all conversant with the early history of his country, that it was only after our political independence was achieved that we turned our attention to profitable manufactures. And no lover of his country can ever forget, that from the year 1807 to 1815, during the embargo, non-intercourse act, and the war, dates our industrial independence of Great Britain; and that those very acts gave an impetus to manufactures, trade, and business, which were beyond precedent profitable.

We do not mean by these comparisons to excite sectional jealousy, or persuade the South that she has been in a condition of degrading vassalage to the North. We only wish the South to feel that the term of her apprenticeship has expired. We would desire to impress upon the minds of her people the conviction that the advantages which they possess over the North for the manufacture of cheap and coarse goods, (for to manufacture the finer qualities will require more experience and capital than they now possess,) are many and important. Cheap living, low wages, cheap cotton, coal and iron, constitute the great elements of success in the introduction and successful prosecution of cotton manufacture. No country in the world possesses these elements in a degree equal to the Southern and Southwestern States. Heretofore the capital and industry of this large section of the country have been almost entirely devoted to agricultural pursuits. By diversifying their labor, in the manner we have proposed, they ensure their independence both of England and the North; while their labor, thus diversified, is made more profitable to themselves. The cotton is ready at their doors, and costs them one cent per pound less than it does the Northern manufacturer. The cost of transportation from the field to some Southern port, thence to Northern factories, the cost of insurance, payment of agencies, profits to manufacturers, and cost of re-transportation back in the form of cloth: all these are items which go to swell the difference in the profits which the Northern and Southern manufacturer receives.

Nor are we without hope that the interest which has been excited on this subject will not be profitless. Already it is estimated that Georgia has in operation 40 cotton mills, using 80,000 spindles, and consuming 45,000 bales of cotton annually; in Tennessee there are 30 factories, and 36,000 spindles; in South Carolina there are 16 factories, 36,500 spindles, and 700 looms, consuming 15,000 bales of cotton; Alabama has 12 factories, 12,580 spindles, and 300 looms, consuming 9,500 bales of cotton. Thus in four States alone there are 98 factories, besides those in process of building, working 140,000 spindles, consuming probably 75,000 bales of cotton annually; and, if they go on increasing for the next five years as they have for the past five, we may safely calculate on some 200 cotton mills in operation in the Southern States, consuming annually over 200,000 bales of cotton, and giving employment to some thirty or forty thousand operatives.

Thus we see the work has already commenced. Southern planters have the monopoly of this great staple. They will not hereafter be so entirely at the mercy of English or Northern purchasers. They can manufacture that description of goods mostly in demand by the planters themselves, such as osnaburgs, sheetings, yarns, jeans and linseys, cheaper by far than their competitors. They can lay the foundation for future wealth and power as Great Britain did. They will add both to their commercial and political power. They will encourage the immigration of an industrious, hardy and enterprising population. By this increase of population and of wealth, the Southern States will be enabled to bind themselves together by a net-work of rail-roads. They can then perfect their internal improvements, increase the facilities of intercommunication, develop their boundless resources, and become what they long since should have been, among the richest, most active and powerful states of the Union.—*Dry Goods Reporter.*

3.—NEW COTTON FACTORY.

The Selma Enterprise says, Dallas county can at last boast of one Cotton Factory; and while we have so many men of capital in our midst, who have not as yet turned their attention to this branch (as well as others) of manufacturing, it gives us great pleasure in stating that the present proprietor (Mr. Jones M. Gunn) of the factory just put in operation, has had energy and enterprise enough to build and start the factory upon his own responsibility.

We have been furnished with the size of the building, machinery, plan of operating, &c. The building is brick, two stories high, covered with tin, and is ninety-two feet long and forty-five wide. This factory has now in operation 1,152 spindles, and all other machinery necessary for cleaning and preparing the cotton. The whole machinery is driven by a forty-horse power steam engine, with two double flue boilers 38 inches in diameter. It is the intention of Mr. Gunn to add looms to this factory next summer.

We hope our enterprising friend will be liberally supported and encouraged. He can furnish merchants and dealers in cotton yarns, with any quality and quantity they may desire.

4.—COAL OF CHATTANOOGA.

Few persons are probably aware of the amount of coal brought to this place either for domestic consumption or for shipment to points below. We learn from Messrs. Vaughn and Thomason, proprietors of the coal yard in this place, that they are now sending down the rail-road, between *three and four hundred bushels daily*. Most of this is taken by the proprietors of the Etowah Iron Works. Several of the Georgia Rail-road companies also take a large amount. The demand is constantly increasing, and the trade is susceptible of an almost indefinite expansion; and when adequate facilities shall be afforded for carrying it on, it will take rank as a leading branch of business at this point. The mine from which this coal is obtained, is in Roane county, about 80 miles up the river. The bed is inexhaustible, and the expense of getting out the coal is comparatively small, so that it can be brought here and placed upon the cars at 15⅓ cents per bushel, and yield fair profits.

The proprietors now employ between 50 and 60 men. They contemplate placing a "Steam Tug" upon the river, for the purpose of towing their coal boats to and from the mine. This will so shorten the time and diminish the expense of transporting their coal, that they will be able to do a much larger business, and with greater profits than at present.

In addition to this, the Iron Manufacturing Company of this place possess one of the best coal mines in the world, where they obtain their own supplies, and from which an immense amount may be thrown upon the market as soon as the avenues of communication shall be sufficiently perfected, and its shipment to distant parts made profitable. The coal of East Tennessee is destined to become one of her greatest sources of wealth, and it gives us pleasure to bear testimony to the enterprise that is contributing to hasten on this result.—*Chattanooga Advertiser.*

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—MISSISSIPPI RIVER AND TEXAS RAIL-ROAD.

A convention has lately been held at Shreveport, in which many counties of Texas and parishes of Northwest Louisiana were represented. The convention, after passing the following resolutions, and inviting a convention at Monroe, Louisiana, on the 8th of December, adjourned.

Whereas rail-roads greatly promote the interests of the regions through which they pass by facilitating intercourse, by enlarging the area of trade and business, by developing resources, promoting emigration, and by generally stimulating the energies, and increasing the physical and social enjoyments of the people; and whereas great inconvenience and injury is sustained by the people residing in the northern portion of Louisiana, in Southern Arkansas, and in Northern and Eastern Texas, for want of a safe, cheap and speedy channel of trade with the great markets of the United States; and whereas the high and important interest involved imperatively demand immediate and decided action:

Resolved, That the construction of a rail-road from Vicksburgh, or some other point on the Mississippi River, via Monroe, Minden, Shreveport and Greenwood, La., and Marshall, Texas, and westward towards El Paso, is a work greatly needed by a large, fertile and important region of country, and we pledge the aid of our means, our time and our influence, to accomplish an end so desirable.

Resolved, That to facilitate the end in view, memorials be sent to the next legislature of this state, comprehending the following objects:

1. The repeal of the existing corporation laws of the state, and the enactment of others better adapted to the formation and organization of rail-road companies in the state.

2. That the police juries of the several parishes of Caddo, Bossier, Claiborne, Jackson, Washita, Franklin and Madison be empowered by an act of the legislature to levy a special tax, to be called the Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas Railroad Tax, on all the real estate within their respective limits; provided that no such tax shall be binding, unless approved by a majority of the legal voters of the respective parishes, at a special election to be held for that purpose; and that each tax payer shall receive in the stock of the company an amount of stock equal to the tax which he may have paid.

3. That our legislature be requested to memorialize Congress, with a view of obtaining for the rail-road in contemplation, such of the contiguous public lands as is customary to grant, to assist the company in the completion of this important public work.

4. That the legislature of the state be requested to donate to the said rail-road such of the overflowed lands, recently granted to the state by Congress for the purpose of internal improvements, as may lie near the contemplated rail-road.

Resolved, That on account of the vast importance of this rail-road to the cities of Vicksburg and New-Orleans, we rely confidently on their aid and co-operation in its construction.

Resolved, That the chairman of the meeting appoint a committee to prepare the memorial to the legislature of the state mentioned in the second resolution, and to procure the signature of the citizens interested, before the legislature assembles, and to take all necessary steps to further the objects of the meeting.

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed to ask of the War Department the appointment of a competent engineer from the Topographical Corps, to survey the route of the proposed road, it being on the most direct and practicable route by El Paso to the Pacific Ocean: and that said committee ask the aid of our senators and representatives in Congress in procuring the services of said engineer.

2.—TURNPIKES OF TENNESSEE.

We are indebted to V. K. Stevenson, of Tennessee, for the following list of these works, which speaks very much for the spirit of that state. Tennessee, in addition, will soon have a rail-road system superior even to Georgia.

Nashville and Louisville road, via Gallatin to Kentucky, line 47 miles, and branch by Bowling Green, 28 miles; branch from Gallatin to C. R., 7 miles; branch from Gallatin and Hartsville, 25; Nashville and Springfield, 35; branch to White Creek, 6; branch to Hyde's Ferry, 3; branch by Phillip's, 9; Nashville and Buena Vista Springs, 7; N. and Hyde's Ferry and Cumberland Valley, 28; N. and Charlotte, 30; N. and Harpeth, 20; N. and Hillsboro, 25: N. and Lower Franklin, 10; N. and Franklin, Columbia and Tennessee River, 74; branch road, 18; Franklin, 10; Eastern, 12; Columbia to Alabama line, 40; Columbia and Lawrenceburg, 25; Western, 10; Nashville and ——, 25; Nashville and Mill Creek, 10; Nashville, Murfreesboro and Shelbyville, 55; Murfreesboro and Lebanon, 33;

Murfreesboro and McMinneville, 25; Murfreesboro, Manchester and Cumberland ountain, 55; Murfreesboro and Statesville, 18; Shelbyville and Statesville, 18; M elbyville and Lynchburg, 20; Shelbyville and Giles County, 20; Lynchburg and Tulohoma, 20; Nashville and Old Jefferson, 20; Nashville, Lebanon and Sparta, 55; Lebanon and Cumberland R. R., 8; Lebanon and Statesville, 12. Total, 855 miles.

3.—BALTIMORE AND THE WEST.—OUR RAIL-ROAD CONNECTIONS.

The late highly favorable annual report of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company is attracting much attention in the western states, and the present success of the road, and the certain promise of its early completion, give the highest satisfaction in that quarter. In this connection, it is a matter of interest to the people of Baltimore to learn from the Chillicothe Gazette, that the friends of the great east and west rail-road, projected from Cincinnati to the Ohio river, to connect with the Baltimore road at Marietta and Belpre, intend to hold a celebration of the commencement of the work west of Greenfield, at New-Vienna, in the county of Clinton. The Cincinnati Gazette has the following interesting article on this whole subject:

CINCINNATI AND BALTIMORE CENTRAL RAIL-WAY LINE.—We have before us the twenty-fifth annual report of the president and directors of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company. This road will soon be completed, and makes, as our readers well know, one of the most important rail-way connections between Cincinnati and the Atlantic cities. At this end of the line, the Cincinnati and Marietta rail-way will make the main Ohio link. Controversies have arisen as to the proper point of termination on the Ohio, and in regard to some local interests; but whether the junction be effected at Belpre, Marietta, or even Wheeling, by this great work, the distance from Cincinnati to Baltimore will be much shortened. By rail-way distance it will be (even through Wheeling) but 600 miles, which, in a continuous line, may be run in twenty-four hours.

The present condition of the Cincinnati and Marietta line is such that we feel assured, that in about two years the entire line from Cincinnati to Baltimore will be completed. From Blanchester, in Clinton county, (a point on the Hillsboro' road,) to Chillicothe, and thence to the Coal Banks, on the western side of Vinton county, (comprising about seventy miles,) the line of the Cincinnati and Marietta road is under contract. The engineering parties of the company are now surveying the route from Athens to Marietta; so that the whole line will soon be prepared.

The report of the Baltimore Company is equally satisfactory. Cars are now running west beyond the Youghiogheny River—being fifty-five miles west of Cumberland. Mr. Latrobe, chief engineer, expects to reach Tagart's Valley River Bridge (one hundred and three and a half miles west of Cumberland) by the 1st of March next, and Wheeling by the end of 1852. This is rapid construction. On the northwestern road, (chartered from the Three Forks to Parkersburg,) three parties of engineers are now engaged surveying. The city of Baltimore and the Baltimore and Ohio Company pledge themselves, in their publications, to make the work. If so, they can easily make their connection with the Cincinnati and Marietta rail-way from Belpre.

It thus appears that this really gigantic enterprise—a rail-way through the centre of the United States, crossing the Apalachian chain of mountains over ridges two thousand six hundred feet in height, crossing the Ohio river, and finally attaining Cincinnati, in the central West—approaches its completion. The entire work from Baltimore to Cincinnati, (six hundred miles, if it go through Wheeling,) will cost *twenty millions of dollars*, and will yield gross receipts of more than *four millions per annum*, at least. This will be a less cost, at least, than the New-York and Erie, which was twenty-one millions for four hundred and sixty-three miles.

The traffic on the Baltimore rail-way shows some extraordinary results, when we consider the original theory of rail-way commerce. Up to 1836, and indeed, 1840, engineers, merchants, and capitalists, considered rail-ways incompetent to the transportation profitably of very heavy articles. Yet here is the Baltimore road making its profits out of the very heaviest traffic which can be put on any road: here is coal, iron and flour carried in enormous quantities. We quote below the comparative traffic in certain articles for 1845 and 1850. The comparison shows a rapid and extraordinary increase:

	1845.	1850.
Flour	225,600 bbls.	471,872 bbls.
Live stock	5,172 head.	14,553 head.
Coal	16,021 tons.	139,110 tons.
Iron	4,810 tons.	10,956 tons.

These are articles carried eastwardly to Baltimore. Flour has doubled, live stock trebled, coal increased eight-fold, and iron doubled. All this in five years!

The table of passengers shows some results which are of great value in exhibiting the real sources of rail-way revenue. Thus:

Total number of passengers	141,761
Total number of through passengers	23,498
Leaving way passengers	118,263

It thus appears that on a long line of rail-road, the way passengers are 4 to 1 over the through passengers. They are, therefore, far the greatest source of revenue from passengers. The annual reports of the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road Company are of great interest in exhibiting the influence of rail-roads in the development of the country and the growth of cities, as well as the value of rail-road stock.

4.—MISSISSIPPI AND ALABAMA RAIL-ROAD.

We have the report of the President of this Company. The road will reach from Selma to Union Town, and it is thought that 260,000 dollars will finish it, exclusively of the working stock, which may be procured on the mortgage of the road, or by leasing it out to the Selma and Tennessee River Company. The President has the assurance that this $260,000 is already provided for, (including the 2 per cent. fund,) and remarks upon the work:

> Suppose the road from Union Town to Selma, a distance of thirty miles, cost three hundred and fifty thousand dollars—and this estimate any one, at all acquainted with the character of the country between those points, will admit to be exceedingly liberal. Now, by certain arrangements with a line of boats, cotton can be delivered in Mobile for one dollar and a quarter per bale—the same which it now costs after being hauled to the river. This arrangement will induce, almost compel, all planters in striking distance of the road, to give it patronage, and will, therefore, secure to it at least forty thousand bales of cotton. This estimate is thought by many persons too low. This amount, however, at sixty-two and a half cents per bale, leaving an equal sum for the boats, will give twenty-five thousand dollars. All persons, at all informed on the subject, concur in representing the up freight as in excess of the down freight. On this road it will certainly be largely in excess; for every fall, goods for a large scope of country, situate on both sides of the Warrior and Upper Bigbee rivers, are landed at Selma, Cahaba, or some other point on the Alabama river. This course of trade results from the uncertain character of the Warrior and Bigbee rivers, and all these goods would necessarily pass over this road, consequently giving it a large amount of up freight for parts of the country whence it would receive no down freight. This is not speculation, but will be readily appreciated by the least visionary understanding. Then we are justified, in view of these facts, in estimating the up freight at thirty-five thousand dollars—mails and passengers at fifteen thousand dollars. This is thought by well informed persons to be entirely reasonable. Stocks, mules, &c., &c., at five thousand dollars. These items make eighty thousand dollars. Forty per cent. is generally deducted for expenses; but to be liberal, we will deduct fifty per cent., and the balance will show a dividend of near 11¼ per cent. on the supposed cost.

5.—MONTGOMERY AND MOBILE RAIL-ROAD

A writer in the "Daily Advertiser" urges the extension of the Montgomery and West Point Rail-road westward by Selma, Union Town, and across the Bigbee to the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, He says:

"New-Orleans is vitally interested in the accomplishment of this line as a means of direct communication with the North—as a highway for the travel, and as a means of connecting herself more closely with the southern interior. Neither of the other roads can so effectually accomplish this object as the one proposed. And as she takes an interest in the Memphis and Chattanooga, and the Girard and Mobile Rail-roads, as she should do, she will, of course, feel more in this, for by it she can, by a short road to Jackson, put herself in connection with the entire system of rail-roads of the United States. But Mobile is more deeply interested than any of these points, and I might, without exaggeration, say, than all of them. Complete this line and the Selma and Tennessee road, and only one hundred and twenty miles of the Mobile and Ohio road, and she is in connection by rail-way, with almost every other important point in the United States. She thus draws the travel and mail over the part of the Mobile and Ohio road completed. By these roads she develops the best cotton-growing region of Alabama and Eastern Mississippi, and the grain and mineral regions of our own state. She will then be no longer dependent on river navigation for her supplies of cotton or provisions; by this means she can be supplied at all times with provisions, without waiting for the Ohio either to rise or thaw, and must then have an advantage over her competitors in that trade. She would no longer be dependent on the rise of the rivers for a supply of cotton, for by means of these roads, her market would be kept regularly supplied—sufficient for the demand. Then, I am inclined to think, we would hear no more of the over-supply by the rise in the Warrior and Bigbee; no more of the, as at present, certain and inevitable decline in the price of cotton whenever the cotton from the Warrior and Bigbee arrives. Then Mobile could commence business with the cotton season as soon as other cities commence, and could and would have a supply equal to the demand, whether the rivers were up or down. Accomplish this, and I venture the prediction, we hear nothing more of Mobile being inferior, as a cotton market, to any southern city. In my opinion, she will then be able to compete with her rivals in all these respects. Supply Mobile with constant, certain and direct means of transportation to and from the country upon which she depends for her trade and support, and all the other obstacles in her way are little to be feared.

6.—LOUISIANA AND TEXAS RAIL-ROAD.

Col. Mills, of Texas, when in New-Orleans, a short time since, addressed the Executive Committee of the Opelousas Rail-road as follows: (It will be seen that Col. Mills would have the road penetrate Texas just exactly where we said it ought to, and for saying which, certain persons in Opelousas and New-Orleans undertook to read us a lesson, to wit: 32° 30, or in the vicinity of Shreveport.

You ask, gentlemen, what are the views and feelings, and intentions of Texas in regard to this rail-road enterprise? Let me inform you, that by extending a road, connected with a road from this place, westward into our interior,—crossing the Sabine, Trinity, and Brazos rivers, above the point of navigation, for even three hundred miles, and pointing still west, on the parallel of 32, or 32 30, towards the Pacific,—we would develop a country, in point of area, soil, climate, and production, unsurpassed by any section of country in the United States; the land universally good, producing twenty-five to seventy-five bushels of corn per acre, thirty to forty bushels of wheat, and 1200 to 2500 bales of cotton; and a large portion of it one of the finest stock countries in the world. This part of Texas is rapidly settling up, and were there rail-road facilities to this place, would speedily pour into your storehouses from 300,000 to 500,000 bales of cotton, or an amount of flour, pork, beef, and mutton, that is incalculable.

You ask what are our means of constructing a road in our own limits? I answer, we have several alternatives. In the first place, the landholders on the route could build the road by a donation of land. As interest is the mainspring of action, let us look at this mode of raising means practically. The land upon the whole contemplated route of the road, after passing thirty or forty miles from Red River, is not selling at over one dollar per acre, unimproved. You apply to Mr. A., who owns one thousand acres near the route, for a subscription; he can readily say, I will give five hundred acres of my land to accomplish the road, knowing that the remaining five hundred acres would be worth from $10 to $20 per acre, and thus render his possessions tenfold more valuable, besides the advantages of an easy communication with one of the best markets of the world, to vend his produce or furnish his supplies.

Secondly, Texas has, after the discharge of her debts, a surplus of from three to five million dollars. From what knowledge I have of the views of our politicians of all parties, it will be deemed the policy of Texas to lay out this fund in internal improvements.

And lastly, I learn that many of the bondholders of Texas would willingly take stock in rail-roads to the amount of the debts due them.

7.—PLANK-ROADS.

Plank-roads are a new feature. It appears that the first plank-road in Canada was laid down in 1836, and in New-York in 1837, but it is only within the last four years that they have been much prosecuted. There now exists, of plank-roads in operation, as follows:

	Miles.	Cost per mile.	Total cost.
Canada	442	$1,750	$ 773,500
New-York	2,106	1,833	3,860,298

Very nearly four millions of dollars have been expended in New-York upon these roads, and the resulting advantages are immense. The roads have all been subscribed for by individuals, and all pay handsome dividends. For instance: the Troy and Lansingburgh road pays 10 per cent., semi-annual; the Utica and Burlington, 20 per cent.; and we believe none in operation pay less than 10 per cent., and none of the stocks can be bought in the market.

The importance of plank-roads in farming regions, becomes self-evident when it is stated, that on the Salina road a two horse team drew six tons of iron twelve miles, without unusual strain. Four and a half tons is an ordinary load, and a team will travel with it eight hours per day, four miles an hour, day after day. A farmer, in a heavy country, stated that the tolls paid saved themselves in the labor of cleaning horses. In all locations where these roads are in operation, land rises greatly in value. On the Salina road farm-land rose from $9 to $15 per acre; on the Syracuse road the increase was $10 per acre. It will be observed that an amount of property equal to $4,000,000, bearing a high rate of interest, has been created, and that that property has added, in addition, several millions to the value of the land through which it runs, and that all this property is mere saving from the old cost of transportation.

8.—RAIL-ROADS IN 1811.

The Philadelphia Ledger publishes the following letter recently communicated to the National Era. It was written by Robert R. Livingston, a great man in his day, and at one time Chancellor of the State of New-York. It may excite a smile in a reader of the present time, who knows what a rail-road is, but objections to great projects are now raised equally as absurd:

ALBANY, *March* 11, 1811.

Dear Sir,—I did not till yesterday receive yours of the 25th of February: where it has loitered on the road, I am at a loss to say. I had before read of your very ingenious propositions as to the rail-way communication. I fear, however, on mature reflection, that they will be liable to serious objection, and ultimately more expensive than a canal. They must be double, so as to prevent the danger of two such heavy bodies meeting. The walls on which they are placed must be at least four feet below the surface, and three above, and must be clamped with iron, and even then would hardly sustain so heavy a weight as you propose moving at the rate of four miles an hour on wheels. As to wood, it would not last a week. They must be covered with iron, and that, too, very thick and strong. The means of stopping these heavy carriages, without *great shock*, and of preventing them from running upon each other—for there would be many running on the road at once—would be very difficult. In case of accidents, stops, or the necessary steps to take wood and water, &c., many accidents would happen. The carriage for condensing water would be very troublesome. Upon the whole, I fear the expense would be much greater than that of canals, without being so convenient.

R. R. LIVINGSTON.

9.—THE GREAT PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD.

Mr. Whitney's indomitable perseverance is deserving of all success. Hannibal when he crossed the Alps, or the Czar Peter when he raised Russia to a first class power, did not display more. We favor a road to the Pacific—believe it to be practicable—and would adopt any plan to secure it which seems likely to be speediest of accomplishment. The work is adequate to the resources of the whole nation, but not beyond them, and should be determined by geographical considerations and surveys as to all questions of routes, etc.

The bill which is now before Congress for Mr. Whitney's work, contains a clause, setting apart a strip of public lands sixty miles wide, running to the Pacific from a point on the Mississippi, *not* north of Memphis, by the Rio Del Norte and the Valley of the Gila, to be granted to any person or company who, within two years after the grant of the northern route to Mr. Whitney, shall undertake to construct a southern route through Arkansas and Texas, etc.

Mr. Whitney has addressed us the following note on the subject:

J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq.,

I have taken the liberty to enclose a slip from the Journal of Commerce, containing a copy of my address before the Royal Geographical Society of London, and my letter to the editor, which letter will show you the position of my affair in England at this time. I also enclosed a copy of the bill, which has been reported to both Houses of Congress, at the close; you will notice a proposed new section, which would have been added had the bill been taken up for action at the last session. This new section met the approbation of Southwestern members. The bill has not been published in any papers to my knowledge, and if you have room it might do good to publish the bill in your next number. This new section will give to the South the same chance as to the North to get a road, provided the lands will furnish the means to build it; and few, indeed, if any, can expect to see a road to the Pacific built from any other source of means.

You will see from my letter to the Journal of Commerce what will be my course of action, that is, to quietly await the action of Congress. I now feel that I have done all that I can do, and all that should be expected from me. It is admitted everywhere that my plan is the only feasible one; and if Congress do not act promptly, I shall believe that the hope of getting a road to the Pacific across our territory is abandoned. Be pleased to write me and give me your views.

Sincerely yours,

ASA WHITNEY.

MESSRS. EDITORS:—While on my recent visit to London, I found that the project which I have made the object of my life, was made the subject of universal interest, as well by the Press as with the people. It was discussed and thoroughly examined in all directions, and by all classes, and in the short space of three months it became fully known and correctly appreciated throughout the Kingdom. It was looked upon as a work, not for a nation, or for a people, but as a work for the world; one in which the whole human family are deeply interested,—a work which the present position of mankind demands as a means to give employment, homes and comforts, to the surplus of population which are now destitute, and burdensome to their fellow-man. The subject excited but little national jealousy, nor was I anywhere treated as a foreigner or as a stranger, but all seemed willing and anxious to encourage and aid me on with the heavy load that I have borne alone, for so many years; and one and all have decided that the road must be built, but cannot be accomplished on any other plan than the one which I have proposed. Capitalists, business men, the people and the press, have declared their full confidence *only* in my plan, and have nobly declared their determination to sustain me in it. The Morning Chronicle, after commenting upon the subject fully, says: "Nothing must be done to deprive unfairly or ungenerously Mr. Whitney and the United States of the full benefit and credit of this great and sagacious undertaking." The Times has spoken equally decided. The Sun, which had expressed very strong views of a road across the British North American territory, in preference to the route which I had proposed through the United States territory, on the 24th June, adopts my views fully, and says: "Opportunities will very shortly, no doubt, present themselves to us for the further explanation of the masterly scheme by which Mr. Whitney proposes to carry out a rail-road between the Pacific and Atlantic. Upon the present occasion we can only aver with earnestness, and at the same time with all deliberation, that the plan submitted to the public by this intelligent and enterprising citizen of the United States, appears to us to be the only one capable of developing the project to its completion, in the future railway across North America, carried through the United States or through British territories." The Globe and other papers have expressed similar views.

Capitalists are ready to furnish the necessary amount of means to commence and carry out the work through the United States territory, provided the bill is made a law by Congress whilst the lands remain unoccupied and available; and so soon as it is decided that the lands are no longer available on the United States territory, then the necessary capital and lands will be furnished to carry out the work on the British territory.

Everywhere a strong desire for examination and warm interest was manifested in the subject, from the crown ministers to all classes, and in no instance was there an opposition to it, after a fair examination. On the contrary, it met with universal favor and warm approbation.

I was invited by the president, Sir Roderick Murchison, and the secretary, Dr. Norton Shaw, to attend the annual meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, for the purpose of explaining my project. [Herewith be pleased to receive a copy of my address delivered before a large meeting of the members of that society, which took place at King's College, on the evening of June 9th.] To many persons present the subject was new, and its magnitude, with the important results to be produced by it, startled some, and caused a disposition on the part of a very few to oppose it; but there appeared a very decided majority in its favor. It was sustained by several strong arguments, and especially so by Sir Roderick Murchison, who entered fully into the subject. Among the few who seemed disposed to oppose, were Robert Stephenson, M. P., the justly celebrated engineer, and Capt. Fitzroy, the great navigator. Mr. Stephenson, however, sustained the views and positions I had taken, in relation to a commercial route between Europe and Asia, across the Isthmus of Mexico or of Suez. He said: "The construction of a railway across Suez, to save time for mails and passengers, was a feasible project, and deserving of the attention of England; but with regard to the opening of a canal, supposing the facilities to be so great, and that in fact the money question was as much sunk as Mr. Whitney supposed it to be, sunk as regarded his project, he (Mr. Stephenson) believed that if a canal were made, the commerce between England and India would not then go by the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. In fact, he thought if the Isthmus of Suez were swept from the face of the globe, as Mr. Whitney supposed the Isthmus of Panama to be, that still the commerce of the world would not pass through it."

To these two highly distinguished gentlemen I am particularly indebted. After this they devoted much time to the examination of the subject, and changed the views entertained at the meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, and became my warm supporters. Immediately after this meeting, Sir Roderick Murchison made an arrangement to have my project brought before the British Association, which convened at Ipswich the first week in July. Prince Albert was present, and my project was selected by himself to be heard, as one of the leading subjects before the association. Captain Fitzroy, who had opposed me in London, was called upon, after I had completed my address, and made a strong and eloquent speech in my favor. After explaining fully his views, he said: "Mr. Whitney's views startled most persons at first, in the United States as well as in this country; but he has patiently reasoned with his opponents, and has shown such good grounds for his views and anticipations, that almost all his adversaries have admitted their soundness, and now consider that his plan is not only feasible, but deserving of full encouragement;" and he says, "It is to be regretted that the American Congress have not taken active steps in forwarding the truly gigantic enterprise, before the tide of settlement has made such progress westward as actually to be now an impediment to the plan in its simplicity.

"As Mr. Whitney's object is not only to connect distant continents, but to afford employment to hundreds of thousands—to millions of those who are destitute of even the necessaries of life, and are unable to obtain work by which to maintain themselves, it may well be hoped that he will be encouraged to go on and prosper in an enterprise so eminently calculated to be beneficial to all the world."

Mr. Stephenson, who was unable to attend the meeting of the association, gave me a letter, authorizing me to use his name, if necessary, in support of the feasibility of my plan. My views were sustained by many distinguished gentlemen of science, as also by practical engineers, to whom I must ever feel greatly indebted, and shall remember them with the greatest pleasure and deepest interest. My address, or explanations, before the British Association, was selected by a committee, and ordered to be printed with their annual publication.

It remains now for the coming session of Congress to decide if this great work shall be carried out on ours, or on British territory. I have pledged myself to my country that I can accomplish this vast undertaking, which will secure to us forever the control over the commerce of the world, and will devote my life to it. The people almost with one acccord have accepted that pledge, and urged me on; but Congress withheld the necessary permission. With that permission I am ready to, and will redeem my pledge. Congress must now decide the question. It is my desire that action may be had upon the bill. If against it, then I am absolved and free to follow the course which duty will then so plainly point out.

Respectfully yours,

ASA WHITNEY.

10.—MEMPHIS AND CHARLESTON RAIL-ROAD.

J. W. Clapp, of Holly Springs, has published a very able letter upon the dispute growing out of the location of the above road. It will be observed, that the Legislature of Mississippi is soon to be called upon to alter the charter of the company, so as to admit of a route which shall leave Holly Springs considerably to the southward. Mr. Clapp argues against such a change at great length, but we have only room for one extract, in which he meets the question of reciprocity with Tennessee. We think that Mr. Clapp *narrows* it in supposing the interests of Mississippi require nothing beyond a junction between the Jackson and Holly Springs, and Memphis and Charleston roads:

The second cause which, as I remarked, it was supposed would exert an influence upon our Legislature in effecting a change in the present charter, was the extension of the Jackson and Holly Springs road through the State of Tennessee to the Ohio River. The Legislature of Tennessee, it is said, will refuse to grant us a charter for this purpose, unless we manifest liberality enough to remove the obstruction thrown in the way of the Memphis and Charleston Company by the terms of the present charter, and this consideration will induce members of our Legislature from the counties interested in the Jackson and Holly Springs road to vote for a change of the charter. I have taken some pains to ascertain the state of feeling upon this subject, and think the difficulty suggested may be disposed of in a few words. Mississippi neither expects nor desires to extend this road through Tennessee at the expense of our people.—When the Jackson and Holly Springs road is made to connect with the Memphis and Charleston road, all has been accomplished that the citizens of our state have any particular interest in. We thus tap the Mississippi river at Memphis, and open up a communication with the Atlantic seaboard. If the people of Tennessee wish to continue this road through their state to the Ohio River, it is for them and not for us to adopt the steps or secure the means necessary to accomplish this result. That this will be the view of the matter which the counties south of us will take, I have every reason to believe, from the information I have upon the subject. If the charter of the Memphis and Charleston road is not changed, and the road is built pursuant to the present requirement of that charter, this, as I above remarked, will secure the junction of the two roads within our own state, and thereby render both of them of great value to us.

11.—MOBILE AND OHIO RAIL-ROAD.

Sidney Smith, of Mobile, President of the company, has lately put forth a report, from which we extract the following valuable information in regard to the road:

It is well known that in 1849 this road was located 70 miles from Mobile to the Buckatunna River, 8¾ miles within the State of Mississippi.

During the present year a thorough re-survey of the whole of Eastern Mississippi, south of Tishamingo county, and careful re-estimates of the cost of constructing the road have been made; also, a very considerable amount of stock subscribed in Mississippi, between Lauderdale and Chickasaw counties, inclusive.

From all the facts thus furnished the Board of Directors, they have unanimously adopted the following described line, as the permanent and final location of this part of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-way, to wit: From the Buckatunna River, where terminated that portion of the road previously located, the route passes up the Chickasawhay River valley near Winchester, Quitman and Enterprise, to the mouth of Sowashee Creek; up the valley of which it passes a northeasterly course to and across the dividing ridge between the waters of Chickasawhay and Bigby Rivers; thence it passes down the slope of Possum Creek, one mile west of Lauderdale Springs; crosses the Sucarnochee River just below the mouth of Patickfau Creek; leaves Narkeeta Bridge one mile to the west, and thence pursuing a northerly and northwesterly course, passes half a mile west of Macon, via Prairie Grove Church, Lodi, Black Jack Mound, and Okalona, and terminates, for the present, at the north line of Chickasaw county, whence its extension through Pontotoc, Itawamba and Tishamingo counties will be published as soon as the surveys beyond are completed into Tennessee; and the people north of Chickasaw and Monroe counties show, by their subscriptions of stock and releases of right of way, that they are ready to do their part, or what they reasonably can, in the work of construction—which is the local work of preparing the roadway and timber for the iron rails.

The counties through which the road, thus far located in Mississippi, and its position and length in them, respectively, are as follows:

In Wayne County,	centrally	34 miles
" Clarke "	through westerly half	28 3-5 "
" Lauderdale "	centrally	34 2-3 "
" Kemper "	easterly half	26 1-5 "
" Noxubee "	centrally	26 1-7 "
" Lowndes "	western side	26 1-5 "
" Monroe "	southwestern part	17 1-5 "
" Chickasaw "	northeastern	12 2-3 "
Total		205 2-3 "

The continuation of the location through Pontotoc, Itawamba and Tishamingo counties, will be 67 1-3 miles further to the Tennessee line, making the entire length of the road in the State of Mississippi 273 miles, exclusive of the branch to the Tennessee River. The length from Mobile, now definitely settled, is 267 miles—33 of which are nearly finished, embracing the purchase of extensive depot grounds, and wharf rights at Mobile sufficient for the whole road when completed to the Ohio River. From this it will be seen that 234 miles more of the route north of Citronelle are now ready for gradation, and will be placed under contract as soon as sufficient means shall be subscribed to complete the same. The amount of capital in money and labor required for this portion of the road is shown by the following estimate of its cost, which has been prepared from the data furnished by the final surveys of the route adopted:

For the local work of clearing, grubbing, masonry, grading, bridging, station buildings, timber and laying of the track	$2,236,576
For Iron Rails (65 lbs. per yard) chairs, spikes, switches, engines, cars, and repair-shop machinery	2,074,800
Total	$4,311,376

Or an average of $18,261 per mile.

* * * * * * * * *

From these statements, it will be seen that the 2 per cent. law for Mobile, and a further subscription of $328,000 in Mississippi, south of Pontotoc county, will secure the immediate commencement of 234 miles more of the road. And by the time this can be put under contract, the final surveys will be completed. road located, and the stock for the local work subscribed for through the States of Tennessee and Kentucky, to the mouth of the Ohio River.

Active operations will be commenced in Tennessee during the present month; and it is confidently expected that the agents and friends of the road everywhere, learning by this communication how the means can be acquired to build all parts of the road, will use all possible diligence in completing the local subscriptions to the amount of the local work, and will report the same, county by county, to the office of the Company at Mobile.

SIDNEY SMITH, *President*
Mobile and Ohio Rail-Road Co.

Mobile, Oct. 6th, 1851.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—GROWTH OF TEXAS.

MUCH has already been written upon the growth and prosperity of this flourishing state. Texas is no doubt destined, in the popular language of the day, to become the "Empire State of the South." When her present debt shall have been extinguished, as it speedily will be, I hope, to the satisfaction of all her creditors, and the balance of the ten millions appropriated to internal improvements, railroads, the clearing out of her rivers and harbors, and the purposes of education,—for which last, by the way, the state has already funded nearly a million of dollars,—her resources will begin to be rapidly developed.

Texas is almost the only state in the Union having a diversity of soil and climate suited to the various products of our wide-spread country. Embracing in her territorial limits an area of several hundred thousand square miles, with several degrees of latitude and longitude, we find her producing, in one district, all the grains and fruits of the North, and in another, all the staples of the South, and the luxuries of the tropics. Cotton, tobacco, wheat, corn, rye, oats, potatoes, &c., in the northern range, and Red river district, of the 31st degree of latitude and upwards,—and sugar, cotton, tobacco, rice, and all the tropical fruits farther South.

At the battle of San Jacinto, Texas scarcely numbered ten thousand souls; she now has nearly *three hundred thousand*. She has upwards of one hundred organized counties, and is well supplied with newspapers and post-offices throughout the state. An intelligent traveler, who has made a recent tour to the Upper Trinity, "represents the emigration to that part of the country as far exceeding anything he had imagined. This immense influx of immigrants had produced the natural consequence of giving an unusual demand for provisions, and enhancing the value of land to an extent that is almost unprecedented. Lands which were offered last year for three or four dollars per acre, can now be sold readily for eight or ten; and such as could be had ten months ago for fifty cents per acre, can now be sold for two dollars in cash."

The Brazos plantations have been gathering a bale of cotton per acre, at the first picking, but since the heavy rains, the yield is much less. The sugar crop is, this year, very fine. Cotton and sugar will be much earlier to market than usual.

The city of Galveston, the island city, the chief commercial mart of the state, has a population of about 4,000 souls. She commands, at present, two-thirds of the gulf trade. Besides regular lines of steam packets to New-Orleans, she has a line of superior sailing packets to New-York and Boston, and it is in contemplation to add a line of steamers to New-York and Mobile. Ten emigrant ships are daily expected here, on their way from Europe, with passengers and freight for Texas.

The domestic trade of Galveston, chiefly up the Trinity and Brazos rivers, for the past year, may be safely set down between two and three millions of dollars. In the course of another year or two, she will ship from this port eighty or a hundred thousand bales of cotton, equal to Natchez and Vicksburg in their palmiest days. Galveston is pretty well built for a new town, though it has nothing to boast of in the way of architecture, unless it be the cathedral, which might be regarded as an ornament in any city. "The log cabin era in Texas has nearly passed by, and people in the settlements and villages have fairly entered upon a style of architecture which may well be termed the *barn* style."

The past summer has been the hottest, dryest, and healthiest ever known. With the exception of two or three showers of rain, providentially sent, it would seem, to keep the cisterns well filled, and supply the inhabitants with water, so indispensable to health and comfort, we may say, in the language of the Scripture, that "the heavens have been brass, the earth iron, and the rain of our land powder and dust." Notwithstanding the thermometer has ranged from 80 to 90 and upwards, all the season, and indicated the *same degree* of temperature nearly at the *same hours* of the day and night, for weeks and months together, we have continually been refreshed by cool, southerly and westerly breezes from the Gulf, and blessed with a degree of health unequalled, we dare assert, by no other town or city of its size in the United States. For five months past or more, the sun and moon have never been shorn of their brightness, and such nights as have beamed upon us continually during the summer, have nowhere else been realized this side of the Grecian Isles.

2.—RESOURCES OF SOUTH FLORIDA.

I wish to direct your attention to all that part of Florida south of the line of frost, but particularly to the Manatee River and its advantages; and I shall give you a description of its climate, its lands, and its productions.

The soil generally is poor pine land, but it is not of that we boast; it is of our wonderful climate, whose genial influence exerts itself alike on animal and vegetable nature. The heat is sufficient to stimulate a rapid and luxuriant growth, while it is never so intense as to become disagreeable. The thermometer rises to ninety-two, perhaps not four times a year. As it is not extreme in its variations of temperature, neither is it rapid in the succession of those variations, but always maintains that equality and dryness of climate so grateful to the northern invalid. I believe it is the healthiest climate in the world. Our northers are less bleak than on the eastern coast, as they are warmed by the radiation of the whole peninsular over which they must pass to reach us. Our winter months are truly delightful; we are just south of the line of frost, and the cold, not enough to injure the most delicate flower, is yet of sufficient intensity to invigorate us and enable us to recuperate from the relaxing effects of a continuous but not severe summer. It is the most favorable climate for pulmonary invalids on the Western continent—instances have occurred where they have been afraid to leave here; I myself am one, and I intend locating here on that account. On examining the dead list, I find the only diseases to be old age, and the consumption, the last being an exotic and not indigenous here.

Many invaluable plants thrive luxuriantly here, even in the poorest soil. The Sisal or Manilla hemp grows on despite of drought, overflow, fire, and even a slight frost; in three years you may cut it, and even with the present instrument for cleaning it, you may gross $600 to the hand and to the acre. You may dig hundreds of bushels of cumpti from the poorest acre, without exhausting it; for the root is pure starch, composed of no minerals, except carbon, and the top, returned to the soil, repays with generous interest the draft upon it during the last year. Sow the seed once, and you have it forever. The castor oil plant here is perennial, growing wild, a tree twenty feet high, and producing one hundred and fifty bushels to the acre. It will always remunerate cultivation, even if sold for lamp oil, and burned for light.

To the settler a thousand unexpected sources of gratification start up. He may eat here his own oranges, olives, bananas, and pine apples; he may fringe his yard with an edging of his own cocoa trees; he may inhale at once the perfume of the lemon and the jasmine; he may sit under the shade of his oleander and crape-myrtle trees, or he may sleep there, fanned by the gentle winds, and lulled to rest by the music of the mocking bird.

The resources of this part of Florida are very great. Along the river is destined to become a vast orange and lime orchard: the bug is actually disappearing; all the trees that were once infested by them, are now clear, and are green and luxuriant.

As a grazing country, it is remarkably fine, and the pastures are green the whole year. We have a grass here that grows with such wonderful luxuriance, as to feed ten head of cattle to the acre—the Guinea grass. No soil is too poor to raise it, and once in possession of the ground, you may cut it monthly, for a long succession of years.

Pooh! says Mr. Wiseacre, all this is fudge. I've been there. Why, sir, the lands are low and flat. So much the better, sir; they won't wash; but they are sandy; we can only work them the easier, and with better health, sir. But they won't produce oats and corn; we do not need them in a land of eternal pastures. You have no springs; true, but we have cisterns of the healthiest and sweetest water in the world. You are sickly. It is false: I appeal to the thousands who flock to the plains of Florida to find new life in her soft winds and softer sky; I appeal to her sons, born and raised upon her bosom, whose manly forms and pliant vigor tell other tales than of disease. But there's no doubt about it, sir! your lands are miserably poor. In one sense of the word, I grant it; in another, I deny it. The land is rich in its adaptation to the climate, as best suited to the peculiar vegetation which the climate grows.

There's not an acre in the broad soil of Florida that will not yield a rich return in something. They take but a narrow view of the economy of nature who will call land poor because it won't yield corn. Fertility of the soil is a relative term. Every soil is fertile that has its uses. Florida poor, with its turpentine to pay six hundred dollars to the hand! Poor! with its oak, to rib the sides of a million of ships? Poor! with its cotton, rice, and cane plantations? with its arrow-root, its tobacco, its hemp, its fruits, its herds, and its fisheries? with a seacoast equal to any three states in the Union? with broad and deep rivers, running through all its length and breadth, and with a variety of climate sufficient to unite the temperate and torrid zones? The charge is absurd, and yet that very charge has been the cause of the neglect of Florida. People found sandy barrens, and the staples they would have raised, died; the real staples of the country they knew not, and, consequently, never tried. Disgusted, they returned home, and the report went forth of the poverty of Florida.

Our cane lands are equal to any in the world, while their position in a tropical climate gives them a value above any other in the United States. They are hammock lands whose rich top soil finds a foundation in a bed of marl, averaging about twenty inches under the surface. Dr. B., a planter here, has cane that has been ratooning seven years, and if not better, is equally as good now as it was in its third year. Unimproved, the land is selling at ten dollars per acre. Its location upon a river of easy navigation and deep bar, (ten feet at low water,) and its access to New-Orleans, perhaps enhancing its value. There is land enough in the immediate vicinity for thirty plantations of about two hundred acres, each yielding a hogshead and a half to the acre.

But it is not of our rich lands that I should speak; there's emulation enough after them; the poor man has no chance there. I would invite his attention to the poor lands, and teach him to trust to the climate for what he found wanting in the soil. I would teach him that there are valuable staples peculiarly adapted to that very soil. I would tell him how he could profitably plant his eighty acre tract in oranges, limes, manilla hemp, and castor beans; how a single acre of Guinea grass would afford perpetual food for his team of two horses or mules, and six or seven milch cows; how a fish and a turtle pen and an oyster bank would afford him and his single slave nutritious food for the whole year; and how easily his meat-house could be filled with venison and beef. I would tell him that prosperity must follow a settlement here, for God has blessed the land, and He will bless the people. Your ob't serv't, J. R. L.

Manatee, Fla., Aug. 3, 1851. [*Soil of the South.*

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

EDWARD BATES, OF MISSOURI.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 12.

We have now to speak of one of the most distinguished and useful citizens of Missouri—a man who has been active in the cause of western progress and improvement—who presided over the deliberations of an important convention held in the northwest for their promotion, and who, for his high and liberal views, enjoys a reputation in this particular second to no one on this side of the mountains.

Edward Bates was born in Goochland County, Virginia, Sept. 4, 1793, of the plain quaker stock, which for several centuries dwelt in the low country, between James and York rivers. His ancestors came from the west of England to the Jamestown settlement, the first of them, in or before the year 1625; and their descendants, with a few exceptions, remained in that region till the time of the Revolution, when many of the younger men—his father and several uncles included—took arms against the king, and they thus forfeited their membership in the "Society of Friends."

They were plain people, of the middle rank as to property and education, and were, for the most part, small planters and merchants. Being quakers, they intermarried chiefly with each other, seldom forming matrimonial connections out of the Society. And thus were founded several of the most numerous families in Virginia—*i. e.*, all that bear the names of Woodson and Pleasants, who are of those humble quakers of Jamestown.

Thomas Fleming Bates, the father of Edward, was a man of fair talents, methodical habits of business, and a good fund of practical information. He was bred to trade, in one of the best mercantile houses in the colony, and was several times sent abroad—to England, Spain, Portugal, and Madeira—as supercargo and purchasing agent. At the beginning of the Revolution, he thought he was in easy circumstances, closed his business in Henrico (or Charles City,) County, where he then lived, and settled on a new plantation on James River, in Goochland.

The general poverty of the times, and the depreciation of continental money, soon made his claims and book accounts of no value; and the British army (on its march to the Point of Fork) destroyed his plantation. But his British debts remained, and they sufficed to break him up, when peace was restored.

Though a quaker and a merchant, he was a sound whig and a brave man. When the British army was encamped upon his plantation, and the lower story of his house occupied as head quarters, for 24 hours, (the family being ordered up stairs,) he was called into the General's presence, and there, a written protection was handed to him by an aid-de-camp. He read it deliberately, thinking sorrowfully of his wife and six young children, folded it into a narrow strip, and thrust it among the burning coals, in a chafing dish which stood on the hearth, ready to make his Lordship's tea, confidently believing that he would be instantly arrested, and perhaps sent to a prison-ship. But Lord Cornwallis was a humane and magnanimous man, loathing the cause in which he was bound to fight. He said, with softened countenance, and in gentle tones, "Mr. Bates, would to God that you, and all such men as you, were loyal subjects."

A few months after, he was at the siege of York, a volunteer soldier in the ranks, under La Fayette, and witnessed the surrender of Lord Cornwallis, and his army, (Oct., 1781.) His son still retains the musket that he fought with on that occasion—still as good a deer gun as could be found. He died in May, 1805, leaving no estate but a widow, five daughters, and seven sons, Edward being the youngest of the twelve children.

Left an orphan under the age of twelve, and without a dollar, there was still no practical difficulty in his way, for his elder brothers were industrious and prosperous men, and generous with their means. One of them, Fleming Bates, of Northumberland, Va., took him as a son, and would have given him a thorough education, but for a bodily accident—the fracture of a leg bone—which stopped the regular course of his studies, and forced him to quit school. He had been for some time at Charlotte Hall Academy, Maryland, a very good school for boys who were anxious to learn, but a very poor one for those who required compulsion: There he attained a knowledge of the elements of mathematics, &c., and something of the Latin and French languages, with which stock he returned to his brother's house, to suffer a long and painful confinement of nearly two years.

His only resource was a good library, and writing materials, at discretion. He had no advice or assistance, no method prescribed, no sequent order of study. Deprived of all active employment, he fell upon the books, with a morbid and indiscriminate appetite, devouring everything that had the name of poetry, from Homer and Shakspeare down to Peter Pindar; and all manner of histories, from Weem's Revolutionary Worthies, up to Livy and Herodotus; and all the while scribbling, as with an itching quill. Thus, thoughts were rapidly engendered, and a mass of ideas accumulated, but, unfortunately, very crude, without any method or classification, and without stopping a moment to think about either taste or judgment.

In his boyhood he looked to an office in the navy as the business of his life; and his kinsman, James Pleasants, then the Representative of his native district, in the winter of 1811–12, procured for him the promise of a midshipman's warrant among the first appointments. His hopes were wrought up to ecstasy. It was the nick of time—we were looking for a war with England—his fortune was made—his fame won! We had nothing to do but meet the enemy, and (as Perry said afterwards) they were ours. But all these flickering glories were soon extinguished. His mother, though quite willing to see all her sons march to battle in any emergency of defensive war, was still too much of a quaker to be willing to see him follow arms as a profession, and depend for support and reputation upon strife and blood. She fairly cried him out of the cherished object of his young ambition, and he renounced the warrant.

The world being now before him, he soon determined upon the profession of the law, and to that end accepted the invitation of his brother Frederick, to go and settle in St. Louis; (Frederick was a protege of both Jefferson and Madison—was Secretary of the Territory of Missouri, from 1807 till the state was constituted, in 1820; and was the second Governor of the state, elected in 1824.) Just as he was getting ready to start to the west, in the winter of '12–13, a British fleet came into the Chesapeake, and troops were suddenly called for, to defend Norfolk. Happening to be in his native county, Goochland, he joined a company of volunteers, marched to Norfolk, and there ate the public rations for six months, rendering no particular service, unless it may be called such to have aided in digging several broad ditches, &c. He was a sergeant in Capt. Hopkins's company of infantry.

In the spring of 1814 he went to St. Louis, then a French village of some 2,000 people. He commenced the study of law, in the office of Rufus Easton, the best read lawyer at the bar, and for some time a delegate in Congress. He studied very diligently, working on the average, (6 days in the week,) 14 hours in the 24. In the winter of 1816–17, he took license, and commenced the practice of the profession.

In May, 1829, he married Julia D., fifth daughter of David Coulter, formerly of Columbia, S. Carolina. By her he has had fifteen children, eight of whom survive.

Mr. Bates has held several offices under the Territorial Government; Circuit (prosecuting) Attorney, under the State Government; Attorney-General, under the U. S. Government; and District Attorney for Missouri. He was a member, the youngest but one, of the Convention which formed the State Constitution in 1820. He has served at different times in both branches of the State Legislature, and a single term in the U.S. House of Representatives, the 20th Congress.

His large family are still dependent upon his professional labor, and he has long ago declined to risk their comfort and his own independence upon the contingencies of political success. It is a pitiable spectacle to behold, even a good man staggering in the path of official duty, under the weight of his private affairs.

For more than 30 years, Mr. Bates has been an occasional writer for the newspaper press, chiefly on political subjects, and of those, for the most part, such as concerned the interpretation of the constitution.

Although he has been a public speaker for 33 years, there are no speeches of his in print. A few notes and sketches have been published, but he never wrote out a speech for the press. He has attempted it once or twice, upon solicitation, but never could satisfactorily recall, he thinks, the spirit that animated the oral delivery. Mr. Bates has acquired a large reputation in Missouri, as a ready and eloquent speaker. The Latin classic tells us that "*poeta nascitur non fit*," but we have small faith in the doctrine, though men do take it blindly for the truth, because it is flattering to their vanity to be supposed the peculiar objects of the Creator's bounty—to be naturally wiser, better, stronger, than other men. There is a much nearer approach to mental equality among men, than is generally supposed; and the actual differences, many and great as they are, may almost always be traced to adequate causes. Those faculties which are most cherished and cultivated, are always most prominent in action. They overshadow and conceal, and almost suppress their uncultivated associates. The *will*, that king faculty of our moral nature, left free from the control of other wills, may run headlong to ruin, but subjected to a wholesome, self-discipline, never fails to make its possessor a self-dependent man of purpose. He may fail to acquire the wisdom and virtue of others, and may abound in obliquities and follies of his own; but he is sure to be original. His virtues and vices are proper to himself, cognate to the predominant will, and characteristic of the man.

Mr. Bates's facility and power as a speaker, are the results, in his own opinion, only of the most diligent and unremitting labor. Many a French volume, (Fenelon, Condillac, St. Pierre, &c.,) he has read aloud in English, and many quires of paper disfigured with rapidly-written verses, (burned before the ink was dry,) as a mere exercise in the choice of phrases, for the expression of thoughts already formed. He had adopted a *speaking* profession, and looked to it as the only means by which he might hope to acquire support and reputation; and the course of study and practice which he pursued was such as seemed to him most promising of success.

In the 20th Congress, Mr. Bates opposed the occupation of Oregon, considering that country essentially foreign, and the occupation of it by the United States the entering wedge to a system of foreign colonization, conquest, and domination. Then we had no rail-roads, and telegraphs, which at this day have for many purposes annihilated both time and space. He was, from beginning to end, against the Mexican war, and against the acquisition of Mexican Territory, by either arms or money; and wrote several articles on those subjects in the St. Louis papers, none of which were extensively circulated in distant journals.

In a letter which we have lately had the pleasure of receiving from Mr. Bates, he remarks, and with this we close our brief and ill-digested memoir:

"Were it not proved by constant experience, that the currents of social life often drift men into courses quite opposite to those they attempt to steer, I should be astonished to find myself, in some sort, a public man, in spite of my efforts to the contrary. In youth I was ambitious, and sought distinction with some avidity. But the popular storm which blew General Jackson into the Presidency, blew me out of the track of public life. In the canvass for a second term in Congress, I was so thoroughly beaten, that I was content, as the Kentuckians say, to "stay whipped," and never again to worry myself with the attempt to climb the slippery heights of politics. Thenceforth, I looked only to professional labor, for the means of supporting and educating a numerous family, and to the domestic circle for all my enjoyments. A practice of more than twenty years on this scheme of life, has destroyed whatever of appetite I may once have had, for public distinction; and now, all I desire is, (I hope it is in my reach,) for my children, the means of education, and a fair start in life; and for myself, the quiet esteem of good men."

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—COMMERCIAL MOVEMENTS IN VIRGINIA.

In our present number we publish the very able address of the Mercantile Convention, lately held in Richmond, Virginia. We have received since that was put into print the "Petition of the Central Southern Rights Association of Virginia, with accompanying documents." The Old Dominion seems to be in truth awake.

The petition contrasts the pristine and present state of the South:

"What was the situation of the Southern states at this important period of our history? They were wealthy, contented, prosperous, and happy. They could sit under their own vine and fig-tree, and none could make them afraid. Their voice was heard in the councils of the nation, and, although it was frequently disregarded, it was always treated with respect. We occupy the same soil; we inhale the same balmy atmosphere; we have the same domestic relations; we have all the energy of our fathers; yet how sad and degrading is our situation when contrasted with theirs. We are a divided, depressed and discontented people; our property is wantonly purloined; our feelings outraged, and our interests disregarded. With agricultural productions which should command the commerce of the world, we are dependent on the free states for the very necessaries of life. We have become a second Ireland. What has produced this deplorable change in our situation? It is the pernicious hand of government. No temporary cause; no trivial event; no accidental circumstance, could produce results so deleterious."

The association asks of the Legislature, the enaction of such *excise* laws, as may be fit and proper, discriminating in favor of such articles as are the growth, manufacture or direct importation of the state of Virginia. The constitutionality of such a measure they believe to be fully sustained by the decisions of the courts; and it was once advocated by Virginia's distinguished son, William B. Giles, when seeking for the means of retaliation upon the North.

"A permanent system of taxation upon the manufactures and imports of the Northern states, brought to Virginia for consumption, is recommended as the most certain means of securing, ultimately, her commercial independence of those states, and as the surest basis upon which to found our future hopes of safety and happiness. The vast sums of money employed in the Northern states, by numerous unlawful and fanatical combinations, constantly brought to bear upon the politics of those states, leave but little hope for the safety of our property, or our institutions, while dependent upon a people actively seeking their overthrow."

By the document annexed to the petition, we learn that as far back as 1769, Virginia imported in value over $4,000,000, whilst New-York did not import $1,000,000. In 1791, Virginia imported $2,486,000, and New-York, $3,022,000. Virginia exported $3,131,000, New-York, 2,505,000 at the same period.

Exports, Virginia.

In 1821, exported	$3,077,210
In " imported	1,078,490
In 1826, exported	4,129,520
In " imported	553,562
In 1830, exported	4,791,644
In " imported	405,739
In 1840, exported	4,778,220
In " imported	545,085
In 1849, exported	3,373,738
In " imported	241,935
In 1850, exported	3 415,446
In " imported	426,599

Exports, New-York.

In 1821, exported	$13,162,547
In " imported	23,629,246
In 1826, exported	35,259,260
In " imported	49,639,174
In 1830, exported	19,697,983
In " imported	35,624,070
In 1840, exported	34,264,080
In " imported	60,440,750
In 1849, exported	45,963,100
In " imported	92,567,369
In 1850, exported	52,712,789
In " imported	111,123,524

"Since the adoption of the constitution, when the commerce of New-York and Virginia was about equal, the exports of the latter have been nearly stationary, and the imports have fallen off to about one-sixth of what they then were, while those of New-York have increased nearly fifty times greater than they were, and the exports sixteen times. The exports of the whole Union, in 1850, amounted to $151,898,720, and the imports to $178,138,318. New-York exported nearly one-third, and imported three-fifths."*

The exports for 1849, of the United States were		$132,666,955
From which, it appears, there was exported in value of cotton	66,396,967	
Tobacco	5,801,207	
Manufactured tobacco	613,044	
Rice	2,569,362	
		75,380,580
		$57,286,375

Nearly three-fifths being of Southern productions.

Exported, of these articles, in 1850:

Cotton	$71,984,616
Tobacco	9,951,023
Manufactured tobacco	648,832
Rice	2,631,557
	$85,216,028

2.—COTTON PLANTERS' CONVENTION.

This assemblage at Macon, which represented several states, was of a most respectable character, and had the time been long enough for the notice to be generally circulated, and for the public mind to be fully made up, there is no doubt it would have been one of the largest Conventions ever held in the South. We have not been fortunate enough to procure the official list of proceedings, but understand that the address and resolutions of the Florida meeting, out of which the Convention sprung, and which were published in our October number, were adopted. The Convention recommended subordinate county associations, etc., to be formed throughout the cotton states. Much good must eventuate from such organization. It has been the misfortune of the planters, that though one in interest, they have ever been divided in counsels; unlike in this respect either merchants or manufacturers; and the result is, that they are, and ever have been, at the mercy of both. Why is it, that in a time of general peace and commercial prosperity throughout the world, the value of cotton falls in a few months nearly one-half, and this when the increase of the crop is not more than one-tenth? Doubtless the rates and principles of political economy are capable of a partial explanation of the reason, but they cannot demonstrate it to be necessary, or growing out of anything but an extremely arbitrary state of things. The laws of demand and supply have *not* been left free to operate upon prices. All of us see fully this, but who is wise enough to suggest the remedy? Will the plan of the Macon Convention effect it? There are thousands who doubt. Will Mr. Baylor's project of *direct* continental trade effect it? This is answered by an intelligent merchant, whose name we will not give, but an extract from whose letter is below, in the negative. The subject is still open for discussion, and we trust that the planters, who are in general an intelligent class of men, and the press which is supported by them, will keep it constantly before their eyes. We ourselves shall not be idle, and extend our pages to all who may wish to occupy them in the matter.

"Had so many who are speculating upon the cotton trade and its supposed diseases, looked deeply into the influences of that power (steam) as displayed on the ocean, and on rail-roads, and on trade, their problem might have been better solved, than in locating the disease exclusively in monopoly and want of distribution, by a more direct trade with the consuming markets. New-York and Liverpool merchants have only studied deeper the elements favored by steam, of monopoly in trade, and by steady perseverance have accomplished, what it will be found more difficult to dissolve than Mr. Baylor imagines. Ardent and enthusiastic, he has awakened attention to the subject; and your Convention (*i. e.* in January next,) may probe with more effect, the disease he would remove, and by the intervention of cotton planters. But he will find that all appeals to that interest will be unavailing, unless the subject be taken hold of by the commercial capital and the commercial marine of the ancient cities of Amsterdam and Bremen. When these cities take the initiatory and open the avenues to trade, by furnishing the facilities and the means of certain and rapid intercourse, the planters will find it to their interests to respond. But for them to combine and ship can never be effected, and their shipments would be unavailing beyond the first experiment. The speed and certainty of intercourse between remote countries is the most important element of trade; and first the packet system, and now steamers to sail on a given day, be there freight or not, has done more to build up those bloated emporiums of commerce than any other operation which may have come in aid. We see the effects of this system daily: and when other cities and countries do likewise, and open the high-ways and the by-ways to intercourse and commerce, distribution will follow, and the monopoly, which superior advantages controlled, will give way to competition and equalization; each commodity or element of exchange finding the cheapest and most direct channel to the marts of consumption."

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* The reader will find many valuable tables of the exports and imports of the South, as compared with the North, in the eleven volumes we have published. He will also consult with advantage the reports of the Mercantile Conventions of Charleston, and of Macon, contained in our volumes for 1847 and 1848.

3.—MACON INDUSTRIAL FAIR.

The late exhibition at Macon, is represented to have been of unusual attraction and splendor. Ten thousand strangers were attracted to the spot from all parts of Georgia, Alabama, Florida, part of Mississippi, etc. The success of these fairs are one of the strongest evidences of the progress which characterizes Georgia in almost every department of industry or enterprise. They should be countenanced and extended throughout all the South.

Beautiful specimens of embroidery, fancy-work, paintings, etc., were exhibited by the ladies, who excelled themselves in these displays of taste. Choice flowers, native and exotic, in graceful boquets, crowned every table.

In the machinery department, a forty horse steam-engine is noticed, from the establishment of Gindrat & Co., of Montgomery, Alabama, in the very highest terms, as a fine specimen of skill, taste, and ingenious construction.

In the manufacturers department, a double set of harness from Albert Hatch, took the premium, as also did a barouche and buggy from James Hulbert's factory, at Macon. Manufactures of wool and leather were not extensive. Many woolen and cotton factories were represented, as also were paper and flour mills, etc.

It would be impossible, however, to enumerate a tithe of the articles exhibited, and we shall but briefly run over a few; varieties of cotton, wheat, corn, potatoes, turnips, squashes, cabbages, apples, oranges, pomegranates, native wines, horses, mules, etc. The cattle and poultry show we extract from an exchange.

"The cattle show was limited, but so far as it went, consisted of very fine animals and of choice breeds. Mr. R. Peters and Mr. J. V. Jones, of Atlanta, were competitors. A few others, whose names are not recollected, two or three of them resided at Macon, were also competitors. Col. Joseph Bond took the first premium for the best cow. She yielded sixteen quarts at one milking, in presence of the committee.

Mr. Peters and Mr. J. V. Jones took more premiums than any others. They were almost the only competitors for premiums for hogs and sheep. Of the latter, Mr. Peters exhibited a three year old South Down, which weighed 293 pounds, and sheared 14 pounds.

The most attractive feature of the exhibition was the display of rare birds and poultry. The principal contributors to this department were Mrs. Charles Collins, of Macon, Mrs. J. V. Jones, of Atlanta, Doct. Geo. M. Battey, of Rome, and Mr. D. Redmond, Mr. R. Peters, and Mr. J. V. Jones, of Atlanta. There were between forty and fifty varieties of fowls. They were from every portion of the globe—from Europe, Asia, Africa, and North and South America. They were of every variety of form, of color, of shade, and size known to poulterers, from the little silky bantam, scarcely as large as a partridge, to the Hong Kong, the Malay, the Burampooter and the Imperial Shanghai, some of which exceeded the size of ordinary turkeys.

The collection was quite extensive of game fowls, whose rich plumage, gallant bearing, and fearless eyes, gave to them a peculiar attractiveness. There was one splendid black hen of oriental stock, of long slender neck, sharp bill, and vulture-like eye and head, which was labelled as having cost *one hundred and twenty dollars on account of her fighting qualities*, and who would be matched to whip any hen in the United States, *for twenty thousand dollars*.

Wild and domesticated wild turkeys, several varieties of geese, among them the large and beautifully white Bremen. A pair from the East of yellowish or dun color, whose united weight was probably not less than sixty pounds.

"Ducks of every hue and from every clime—this list will give the reader some idea of this display of the feathered tribe. Doct. Battey's collection of pigeons, twelve distinct varieties, and most of them very beautiful, was not the least attractive part of the exhibition. Nor should be omitted the beautiful pair of California partridges, of a size somewhat larger than the quail, with their distinctly defined plumage of rich brown and pure white, each plumed with two erect feathers upon their delicate-shaped heads. They attracted much attention, and were universally admired."

4.—LIFE AND TIMES OF LAFITTE.

The paper which was published in the October number of our Review with this caption, was animadverted upon by one of the city presses, the Delta, with a great deal of harsh criticism, so far as the author of it was concerned, and so far as we ourselves were interested, with a great deal of injustice. This was so evident to many as to induce the belief that some motives of personal ill feeling were mixed up with the criticism, though considering our previous relationship with that Journal, it is difficult to say how such feelings could have been provoked. But be that as it may, we never endorsed the paper on *Lafitte* as genuine and authentic history, in every particular, but simply gave it with the author's own authorities, (and he is a very respectable gentleman,) as we give a great many other papers, and as every other editor necessarily gives them. Even had the piece been a pure romance, it would have been admissible under the head in which it was placed, that of *General Literature*, where many months ago we announced a determination to include "sketches of fact and fancy" for the purpose of enlivening the pages of the Review. Our readers know that we have inserted several such sketches, without the possibility of their being deceived; and if there were errors in the paper upon Lafitte, which we think not improbable, the authorities relied upon are not of such a character as to furnish a guarantee against them.

The first point at issue is—was Lafitte a pirate, a sailor, a captain, in early life, under Napoleon, or was he, as it is alleged, a blacksmith of New-Orleans, and a very common-place mercantile adventurer? Having given the views of our author, we insert those of his critic.

"Jean Lafitte, who commanded the band of men who were broken up at Barataria, in 1814, by Commodore Patterson,—who was tried in the United States court in this city for a violation of our neutrality law, and for smuggling, (never for piracy)—was no other than the aforesaid blacksmith from Marseilles, whose identical shop stood on St. Phillip-street, until it was pulled down, a short time ago. And for the truth of this statement, we rely upon the testimony of Colonel John R. Grymes, of this city, who has been for the last forty years one of our most prominent citizens; and who was the counsel and attorney of Jean Lafitte, in the prosecutions by the United States. Also Mr. Kilty Smith, a venerable citizen, who held the office of Naval Officer in this city during the invasion of 1814, about the time of Lafitte's transactions here. We read the extract in De Bow's Review to these gentlemen, and they both concurred in the facts stated in our criticism. It was from them, as well as from others of our old residents, we derived the information that Lafitte was a blacksmith."

The second point is—Did Lafitte serve in person at the battle of New-Orleans? Our author's assertion, that he did, is denied generally, upon the authority of our estimable citizen, Maunsel White, and specifically upon the following declaration of H. W. Palfrey, Esq., another of the veterans of 1815: "I did not see Lafitte, or hear of his being at the American lines; I am confident that he was not entrusted with any important command in General Jackson's army." These gentlemen had the means of being correctly informed, though we learn there is a cotemporary authority in Niles' Register, that Lafitte was actually at the battle. We shall hunt it up and notice it hereafter.

The third point is—Did the author give a correct account of the battle of New-Orleans? Mr. Palfrey says, "There was nothing connected with it that could properly be called a *glacis*. I saw no cavalry in the British army, and only five or six horses. If there had been more, I think I should have seen them." Let the author justify himself on these particulars.

"The description of this battle I took from the manuscript of an eye-witness, who asserts that there was a "glacis," and whose assertion is equally as good as your own. This writer also says, that the ladders and fascines were *not* brought up; and, in a word, every particular relating to this battle (with the exception of the cavalry and Lafitte's actions upon that occasion,) are taken from the manuscript of this eye-witness. I may be in error as to the number of horse, but you are equally so in the other extreme, when you allege there were "not over a dozen horses in the whole army." You are also in error when you say I convey the idea that Kean was killed. This construction could not be put upon the sentence, taken in connection with the previous events of the battle. "Kean fell at the head of his troops." —"Burning to revenge the death of their *commanders*," (not command, as you quote,) "the Highlanders rushed forward with inextinguishable fury."

Nothing is calculated to give a more correct notion of the difficulties that environ history, and which made Sir Walter Raleigh despond in the preparation of his, than all of this incertitude and discussion about a matter which happened in our very midst, and within the memories of hundreds of our citizens. Let any man read the different versions of the battle of New-Orleans in the histories, and he will be convinced of this. It is sufficient to say, that many of the most important points remain unsettled, and that no one can rise from a study of the subject without conviction that public opinion has been for a long time in the wrong upon them. We believe that Latour is the most reliable, though he is corrected by some of the "eye-witnesses." Why does not Mr. Gayarre, who is our native historian, take up this matter and sift it thoroughly? He would win great laurels in this field. Meanwhile we intend ourselves a closer study of the subject, and shall, before long, present a paper upon it, being aided by a very interesting manuscript contemporary record, kept by an officer in the field, and embracing a period of several weeks before and after the battle.

5.—SOUTH CAROLINA INSTITUTE FAIR.

The late exhibition of this institution in Charleston was very imposing, and contrary to anticipation was more brilliant than ever. Immense crowds were in constant attendance. There were upwards of four hundred articles on the catalogue—more of them being of a useful character than ever.

Among the premiums awarded were—

Gindrat & Co., Alabama, for best steam engine, and also for several other articles of iron; William Lebby, best portable steam engine; Archer & Co., Virginia, various iron work, hatchets, axes, etc.; N. H. Lebby, Charleston, gold medal, for best machine for flowing and draining lands—(we already referred to this machine in our pages, but did not then know that it was the work of our old school-mate and friend, whose ingenuity, even in early boyhood, was the constant marvel of his gaping companions, and who must have gone very high in the mechanical world had his application been equal to his genius)—D. McComb, Memphis, for best Labor-Saving Cotton Press; Patton, Donnegan & Co., Huntsville, best cottonades, ginghams, etc.; Charleston Mills, cotton shirtings; R. Hawley, Columbia, silk hats, the first manufactured in the state; Dr. R. Harlee, wine from Scuppernong grapes; B. B. Sams, Beaufort, wine from wild orange; W. H. Coin, Augusta, friction matches; Carew & Hopkins, shoe factory, best plantation brogans; Atlantic Steam Mills, second best flour; T. & J. Bookman, Richland, best flour; James Gamble, Florida, leaf tobacco; Robert Chisolm, bottles olives, good as the French; Rock Island Factory, Georgia, post office paper; V. McBee, South Carolina, best newspaper; a young lady of Charleston, two cameos cut from ordinary conch, gold medal; Mrs. O. Leslie and daughters, worked chair; Mrs. Loury, socks knitted from the fur of wild cat; South Carolina Stained Glass Works, best specimen; Mrs. Samuel Reed, South Carolina, spun silk in its natural state, gold medal; Reuben Wallace, South Carolina, barrel rosin and barrel turpentine; A. H. Rhoads, New-Orleans, ornamental iron work; Hamlin & Tew, Christ Church, woollen blankets, also for brooms; Ed. Whaley, Edisto, Sea Island cotton; Gen. Jessup, Georgia, silk cotton; J. R. Jones, Georgia, best upland cotton; C. Rhodes, South Carolina, earthen ware; L. M. Hatch, Georgia, Burr stones. The committee hold in consideration Parkhurst's Cotton Gin for uplands, and Shaffer's Sea Island Gin.

We have named but a few of the articles to which premiums were awarded. A great many were given to the ladies for beautiful fancy work, and many were also given to the various artisans and mechanics who were represented in the fair.

The poultry exhibition is also noticed in high terms, but we can do nothing more than refer to it, intending in our next, through the pen of a friend, to give the Institution a fair showing.

Game Fowls.—From C. M. McMichael and D. Jewel, Orangeburg, S. C., A G. Summer, Lexington, Dr. J. K. Furman, A. C. Phin, John C. Miller, C. Dukes, Charleston.

Asiatic varieties.—Cochin China, Shanghaes, Imperial Chinese, Brahma Pootras—Hugh Wilson, Wadmalaw. Gray Chittagongs, Alpine Eagle Fowls, Cochin China, Shanghaes—Drs. Furman and Couturier. Cochin China and Shanghaes—John Michel, Dr. A. P. Hayne, Charleston. Shanghaes—Dr. D. Gieger, R. A. Pringle, do. Bucks County Chittagougs—C. H. Stevens, do. Imperial Chinese and Shanghaes—T. A. Whitney, do. Chittagongs and Shanghaes—A. C. Phin, H. C. Gerkin, do. Malays, Black Java and Cochin China—Edward Horry, do.

Top-Knot Fowls.—Black and Frizzled Poland—C. Volmer, Charleston Neck. Gold Spangled Hamburgs—Dr. E. Horlbeck, Charleston Neck.

Bantams.—Silver Sebright and Partridge Bantams—T. B. Lucas, Charleston Neck. African Bantams—A. G. Summer, Lexington.

Pheasants.—Gold and Silver Pheasants—T. B. Lucas, Charleston.

These picturesque-looking birds are a rare curiosity, and of themselves well worth a walk around the Exhibition room. We noticed a pair of mammoth Geese from the Dairy Farm of Dr. W. G. Ramsay, on the Neck, and a beautiful pair of Summer Ducks, from Dr. Phin's farm in the same neighbourhood. The Exhibition continues to be well attended, and will be open during the remainder of the week, morning and evening.

6.—R. C. BRINKLEY, OF MEMPHIS.

When we published, in our September number, the biography and portrait of Mr. Brinkley, believing that he was a fair specimen of the enterprise and spirit of Memphis, it was thought by some that he was too young to occupy so prominent a place in our gallery, though we have reason to know since that the public opinion of Memphis entirely justifies the selection which was made by us, without consultation with any person whatever. A correspondent of the Nashville Banner thus speaks of the merits of Mr. Brinkley, and we only quote the passage now as our original biography was very meagre. We hope to make other selections from Memphis:

> "Memphis can boast of a single citizen who in the past eighteen months has aided public enterprises more liberally, in proportion to his wealth, than perhaps any individual in the South. He has subscribed one thousand dollars to the Memphis and Hernando Plank Road; one thousand to the Sommerville Plank Road; five thousand to the Germantown Plank Road; ten thousand dollars to the Memphis Manufacturing Company; and fifteen thousand dollars to the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road. He gave his land to the Rail-road for a depot at $300 per acre, for which he had been offered $500. He has aided liberally in the construction of every church which has been erected in Memphis for the past eight or ten years. He has given a lot to a minister, for which he was receiving annually from four to five hundred dollars, "to have and hold" as long as he would keep up a school on the premises. He has just built the finest block of four story brick and stone business houses in the west. He is now devoting his whole time and energies to the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road without charge. His private acts of charity and beneficence are worthy of his public conduct."

7.—AFFLECK COTTON PLANTATION RECORD,

Consists of a folio blank book, of good paper, well bound, ruled and headed complete. The heads are for an inventory of stock, for daily and weekly records of events, etc., and for showing names of hands, with their work, etc., different articles furnished to each hand; records of births, deaths, sickness, weights of cotton bales, products of plantation and expenses, balance sheet, &c. This valuable book is coming into extensive use among the planters.

A few copies have been deposited at the office of this Review, which may be had by letter, enclosing $2: or $2 50, when the postage of the book will be *prepaid*. These are of the *medium* size, or for forty hands.

8.—LOUISIANA MINERAL SPECIMENS.

We noticed, several months ago, an interesting cabinet of mineral specimens, picked up in Louisiana, and polished by a very worthy and old citizen, Dr. Holliday, of Harrisonburg, Louisiana, who is now in want of money, and will dispose of them on very accommodating terms. The specimens he has left in our hands for safe keeping. Will not some gentleman of wealth, curious in these matters, reward the laudable spirit of Dr. Holliday? There are near two thousand specimens.

9.—BOOKS OF THE MONTH, FROM J. C. MORGAN—J. B. STEEL, ETC.

1. *Fall of Poland*; Containing an analytical and philosophical account of the causes which conspired in the ruin of that nation; together with a history of the country from its origin. By L. C. Saxton, in 2 vols. Charles Scribner, New-York.

This Mr. Saxton, whoever he is, and he appears to live somewhere in the interior of New-York, has certainly prepared a ponderous book. After hurrying over the chronology and geology of the country, he throws the rest of his material into chapters upon "Sovereignty," "Progression," "Army," "Wars," "Aristocracy," "Democracy," "Slavery," "Laws," "Literature," "Civilization," "Conquest," etc. He has a chapter upon the "Corporation views of Poland and other nations," and another entitled "An Argument for the Restoration of Poland." The facts are drawn from all reliable works upon Poland, including histories, geographies, encyclopædias, periodicals, reviews, travels, &c. The work is, of course, a mere compilation, and when the author tells us, "I have generally avoided the use of *recondite* materials, although *occasional drafts on oriental literature* could not be avoided," or "In relation to the principles of philosophy, of government, law, religion, society, wealth, and other elementary conclusions, which have been familiar (to me) for many years, I have not referred to the books, for the reason that it would be impossible at this late day to distinguish between those authors to whom I might have been originally indebted in early life, and those conclusions which should be charged to the more mature reflections of riper years,' etc., etc., we perceive his insufferable vanity and conceit, and begin to suspect the extent of the *profoundness* which so much vaunts in advance.

The bitter prejudices and ignorance displayed by the author, in his chapter upon slavery, to go no further, *fix* upon the mind the impression which is provoked by his preface. It is time that the South should put its brand upon the authors of such sentiments as these, by refusing to purchase their books. The fault is not with the publishers, but with ourselves.

> "Slavery, in its numerous degraded forms, furnishes every variety of unworthy objects for the gratification of the master's base passions, without resistance or redress, and cultivates in his bosom prodigality, pride, anger, cruelty, selfishness, and licentiousness; producing disease and premature death."

Oh, sapient Mr. Saxton, how long have *your* countrymen tested the "selfishness" of the planters and gentlemen of the South, in their annual migrations hither? Let the often-outraged hospitality of our people speak!

Again, "No nation has ever survived slavery, where the experiment has been tried long enough to develop its fatal consequences, without abolishing it. National prosperity and slavery cannot stand together. The institution is inconsistent with the physical, intellectual, and moral constitution of man, and cannot long exist with civilization, literature, morals, and religion." Perhaps this wiseacre has never heard that the republics of antiquity rose to renown and splendor whilst their slave institutions were in full vigor, and that their decadence, so far from preceding, followed always upon the heels of the abolition of these institutions. Perhaps, too, he regards *his* narrow and bigoted intellect fit to be compared with that which marks and characterizes the *benighted* civilization of the South! Some of our schoolboys would give him a lesson upon subjects upon which he prates so complacently.

Finally, hear this sapient Saxton speak of an institution upon which is founded, at the present moment, all of the wealth, power, civilization, and safety, of fifteen states of this confederacy. "America, now only in the sixtieth year of her national existence, has abolished the slave trade, *and demolished the institution, with a few lingering, modified exceptions*, which are doomed to die at no distant day. Irrespective of all moral considerations, it is a question well worthy the serious consideration of statesmen, whether slavery *has not become a superannuated institution*, unworthy and useless in the middle of the nineteenth century."

2. *Epoch of Creation*—The Scripture Doctrine contrasted with Geological Theory. By Eleazar Lord; with an Introduction by Richard W. Dickinson, D. D. New-York: Charles Scribner, 145 Nassau-st.

This work has its origin in the sceptical tendency of certain works on the subject of geology, and in the fact that many friends of the Bible have been making concessions to geology, believed to be fatal to the drift and integrity of the Mosaic record. "What do the scriptures teach respecting the work of creation?"—is the one great question considered in this treatise. "If geologists may draw different conclusions from the changes in the organic and the inorganic world, which are now in progress, by what law of evidence are we bound either to harmonize the Mosaic record with their conflicting theories, or to discard its authority."

3. *The Young Emigrants.* New-York: Charles Scribner.

A neat little volume, containing several interesting stories for children, to wit, Madelaine Tube, The Boy and the Book, The Crystal Palace, &c.

4. *The Young Christian.* By Jacob Abbott, greatly improved and enlarged. With numerous engravings. Harper & Brothers.

Mr. Abbott, who has been writing an interesting series of histories and biographies for the young, has now undertaken a series of Christian works, intended to guide the youthful footstep in the way of heavenly life. The series will embrace "The Young Christian," or a familiar illustration of the principles of Christian duty. "The Corner Stone," or a familiar illustration of the principles of Christian truth. "The Way to do Good," or the Christian character mature. The style and execution of the work are very handsome.

5. *Braggadocio.* A book for boys and girls. By Mr. L. C. Tuthill. Charles Scribner, New-York.

Another little story for children, with "pictures" illustrating the proverb, "Brag is a good dog, but Hold-fast is better."

6. *Naval Life;* or Observations Afloat and Ashore. By W. F. Lynch, U. S. Navy. Charles Scribner, New-York.

The author is evidently an unpracticed writer, and has yet much to learn in that field. His object is to portray the trials of naval life, and combat the rising prejudices against it. He entitles his book "The Midshipman," and dedicates it to Lieut. M. F. Maury. We give a specimen of his style in describing a night scene:

> "At night, the sea became beautifully phosphorescent, and the waves, as dashed aside by the advancing prow, fell over in curls of flame. Here and there a luminous track betrayed the course of the flying dolphin to the rapacious shark, whose impetuous rush left a broad and sparkling wake, which was lost in one bright whirl, as the destroyer closed upon his victim. Once there was a rushing sound, as a whale, disturbed in his slumbers, floundered for an instant, and then through an illuminated path plunged deep into the recesses of his native element; while myriads of porpoises, the dolphins of antiquity, sportively chased each other, and, darting to and fro, without design or order, chequered, with lines of light, the dark, unruffled sea."

PERIODICALS, ETC. OF THE MONTH.

1.—*Captains of the Old World*, as compared with the Great Modern Strategists—their Campaigns, Characters and Conduct, from the Persian to the Punic Wars. By Henry William Herbert. New-York: Charles Scribner. New-Orleans: John Ball. 1851.

This work is issued in superb style, with numerous illustrations. Among others, The Roman Knight's Charge of the Roman Legion; March of a Grecian Army; Onset of Numidian Horse. The introductory chapter treats of ancient warfare in general, and the tactics then in use. Then follows the career of Miltiades, son of Cimon. Themistocles; Pausanias, the Spartan; Xenophon, the Athenian; Epaminondas, the Theban; Alexander, of Macedon; Hannibal, in which last case the author finds a striking parallel with Napoleon, though, on the whole, he inclines to the opinion that Hannibal was the greatest strategist of the two. The author proposes a series of similar volumes upon the Captains of Rome; Captains of the Eastern Empire; Captains of Barbarians; Captains of the Middle Ages; and the Statesmen and Orators of each of these periods in succession; together with the Hero-Kings and Tyrants of Greece. This is a wide field, and well adapted to the peculiar talents of Mr. Herbert.

2.—*Rural Homes;* or Sketches of Houses Suited to the American Country Life, with original Plans, Designs, &c. By Gervase Wheeler. New-York: Charles Scribner. New-Orleans: John Ball.

Let every planter desirous of improving or beautifying his estate, procure a copy of this interesting work, which commences with the first foot-tread upon the spot chosen for the house; details the considerations that should weigh in selecting the site; gives models of buildings differing in character, extent and cost, and suited to particular localites and to circumstances; shows how to harmonize the building with the surrounding scenery, and to economise expenditure with truest refinement of taste; teaches how healthfully to warm and to ventilate; assists in selecting furniture, and the numerous articles of utility used in constructing and finishing; with remarks upon the adjuncts to the house; concluding with practical directions to building amateurs, &c.

3.—*Claims of Science:* An Address delivered before the Societies of Erskine College, S. C. By Wm. C. Richards, A. M., 1851.

The author ranges over the whole field of the sciences, and throws around their domain much of the poetry of his own cultivated imagination. Mr. Richards has long been known for his literary spirit and services in behalf of the commonwealth of Southern letters, and his address at Erskine College is one of the happiest of all his productions.

4.—*Some of the Thermal Waters of Asia Minor.* By Dr. Lawrence Smith, of the University of Louisiana, New-Orleans. This paper was read, we believe, before the American Scientific Association at Albany, and published in Silliman's Journal. It shows great labor and the powers of an almost exhausting chemical analysis. Few men of his age have more distinguished themselves in this department of science than Dr. Smith, who was for several years in the employment of the Turkish Government, and has been applauded by the scientific societies of Europe in no measured terms.

5.—*Key to the Genders of Nouns in French.* By Diego Morphy, of New-Orleans. This little pamphlet is calculated to be of much use to students of French, who always meet with a mountain of difficulty in the matter of genders.

6.—*The Charleston Medical Journal.* Contents; Wragg on Epidemic Dysentery; Simons on Yellow Fever in Charleston; Cain on Typhoid Fever; Cartwright on the Diseases of the Negro Race reviewed. This last paper, it seems, was rejected by the New-Orleans Medical Journal, and we think properly. The style and manner are not suited to such a discussion, nor are the writer's notions about slavery, emancipation, etc., at all to the taste of Southern men—for example: "Surely Dr. Cartwright does not mean that it was an act of humanity bestowed on the race—the negroes, when we stole them from their native land, and brought them among us to be our hewers of wood and drawers of water," etc. The writer is evidently young and inexperienced, and in entering the lists with such a man as Cartwright, evinces a high degree of self-satisfaction. However far Cartwright may strain his theories, there can be no doubt that they are founded upon a substantial basis of truth; that he has forgot more science than many of his critics ever knew; and that he is deserving of the praise of the whole country for his bold and fearless advances into the new field of negro life and diseases.

7.—*Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine.* No. 11. The spirit of the publication is preserved from month to month, it should be recommended to engineers everywhere.

8.—*Plough, Loom and Anvil,* for November. The leader is, we suppose, from Mr. Carey, who is known as the uncompromising advocate for protective tariff, and is headed "Frauds of the Advocates of British Monopoly."

9.—*Whig Review,* New-York. Contents: Political Responsibilities; Santa Rosa; Kossuth and his Country; Murat; Imagination and Fact; Journalism in New-York, in which the writer intimates that the profits of the New-York Tribune are $70,000 per annum; Evenings with Female Poets; Presidential Elections, &c.; Portrait of General Coombs.

10.—*Democratic Review,* New-York. Contents: Repeal of British Corn Laws; Parisian Saloons; Queen's Cup; Some Irish Poets; Reedyrill; Last of the Sacred Army; Financial and Commercial Review; Miscellanies; Biography and Portrait of General Wool.

11.—*Western Journal and Civilian.* St. Louis, monthly. In this number H. Cobb is admitted as co-editor with Mr. Tarver. Art. I. Commerce of the Mississippi Valley, a most able and valuable paper by the senior editor, who never writes anything slovenly or incomplete. Art. III., On a Southern Route to the Pacific, has an especial interest just now, and goes very far towards settling a point we of the South have always contended for. The literary department contains a good many original papers.

11.—*Westminster Review* for October. Leonard, Scott & Co. Reprint. Contents: Western Africa; The Marlboroughs and the Reign of Queen Anne; Reason and Faith; Decisive Battles; Process and Pleading; Life and Immortality; Foreign Literature. These reprints have the advantage of cheapness, and the works themselves are the best, in their broad limits, of the English language.

13.—*International Magazine.* This beautiful and cheap monthly is rapidly progressing in interest and in circulation. The present number contains twelve splendid illustrations of the great agricultural fair at Rochester.

14.—*Harper's Magazine.* Harper's Monthly Magazine, $3 per annum. Nothing more need be said of this than that, in less than two years, it has acquired a circulation of from 60,000 to 75,000 copies monthly.

15.—*Registration of Births, Marriages and Deaths* in Massachusetts, 1850. The condensation, arrangement, &c. of the statistics, and the deductions from them, are made by Dr. Josiah Curtis, and are very valuable for reference, and will be freely used by us hereafter.

16.—*London Labor and the London Poor.* By Henry Mahew; with daguerreotype engravings taken by Beard. Nos. 13 and 14, price 12½ cents each. Harper & Brothers. This is one of the most extraordinary works of the present century, and opens new views for the political economist and moralist.

17.—*Scourge of the Ocean;* a Story of the Atlantic. By an officer of the United States Navy. A. Hart, Philadelphia; J. B. Steel, New-Orleans.

18.—*Stone Mason of Saint Point.* By Alphonse De Lamartine. Both of these works are cheap editions, in paper bindings, the last from the house of Harper & Brothers.

19.—*Silliman's Journal, November,* 1851. $5 per annum. Contents: Zodiacal Light; Cultivation of Nutmegs and Cloves; Coral Reefs and Islands; Tidal Observations on the Coast Survey, by Prof. Bache; Silurian Basin of Middle Tennessee; Preservation of Animal Substances; Mineralogical Notices; Observations on the Pendulum Experiment; Meeting of the British Association; Botany and Zoology; Miscellaneous Bibliography, &c.

20.—*Southern Literary Messenger,* October and November, 1851, New-Orleans. This is perhaps the very best number ever issued by our contemporary, which is saying a great deal for it. Art. 1. Gov. Spotsford and the Virginia Burgesses; 2. History of Richmond; 4. James Lafitte, by Tuckerman; 7. The Ebony Line—an attempt to bolster up that odious scheme which some Southern men have suffered themselves to give countenance to, and which we denounced many months ago as further evidence of the disposition of Congress to interfere and encroach on the subject of slavery and colonization. The twelfth article, from Lieut. M. F. Maury, on the *Commercial Prospects of the South,* should be read and studied by every man on this side of the Potomac; and we intend to contribute thereto, if possible, by republishing it entire in our pages. The editor has a beautiful poem "To Bulwer, on a Second Reading of the Caxtons," which we regard a finished production.

21.—*Southern Quarterly Review,* October, 1851, Charleston.

Mr. Simms, the editor, is spoken of in some quarters as a fit person to fill the chair vacated in the South Carolina College by the resignation of Wm. C. Preston. We think he deserves it, for the high and honorable place he has won in the republic of American letters. We have never been an indiscriminating panegyrist of Mr. Simms, but have, nevertheless, barring some faults, always regarded his reputation with pride and hope. He is scarcely yet in the zenith of his career, and has, we doubt not, many other laurels to win. Art. 1, on "South Carolina," is too much on the red republican school, and too bitterly abusive of Virginia for her course on the compromise measures. These things produce but heart-burnings and recrimination. "Separate Secession," evidently from a co-operationist, perhaps Mr. McCord. In the "Athenian Orators," we recognize the pen of one whom we welcome again to our hours of study, George Frederick Holmes, one of the most distinguished scholars in America. The paper on the "Philosophy of Language" is too long and too heavy. "Women of France," "Human Races," "Education," "Popular Discourses," "Neglected Poetry," are all able and interesting,

EDITORIAL NOTES.

In our next will appear the proceedings of the *General Rail-road Convention* to be held in New-Orleans on the first Monday of the present month. We fear the assemblage will not be as large as was at one time expected. The period is too early for the country people to come in—especially from a distance; the press, neither in New-Orleans nor out of it, has taken up the matter at all, with rare exceptions, leaving the committee. who have done their duty faithfully, almost *unsupported*. The truth is, it is impossible to rouse the southern people on any subject whatever of enterprise, and the sooner we admit it and ground our arms, the better. Nobody among us cares one fig about *to-morrow*, or would waste his resources and time upon *mere action*, when it is so easy to *talk!* With a little co-operation from the Press, this convention might have been made the most important one that ever assembled in the Southwest. As it is, we expect a very homespun sort of an affair: God grant that we may be disappointed! It is not yet altogether too late to hope.

☞ In our next, perhaps, we hope to publish an article on *Banking*, from the pen of J. S. Duke, Esq., formerly of this city, but now a merchant of St. Louis, who is in every respect qualified to make a most able disquisition upon the subject, which he has long studied, both theoretically and practically. Our friend, Mr. Duke, contributed several able papers to our pages in 1846 and 1847.

☞ Subscribers who have not noticed the bills and the circulars we have enclosed asking for remittances, will ask themselves if the carelessness is altogether fair towards us, considering our very heavy expenses, very great labors, and "exceeding small reward," even at the best. Let every one take the case to himself, and *remit by mail*.

☞ Our Portraits.—In our last number, the portrait of Mr. Bates, of Missouri, accompanied the biographical sketch of Mr. Fowler, of Arkansas, and in the present number the case is reversed. These gentlemen will be assured that it has occurred by one of those accidents which it is impossible to guard against. We shall set the matter right in our bound volumes.

At the height of the summer solstice, a planter, who signed himself "Lafourche," came down very severely upon us for alleged offences of commission and omission in our sugar statistics. We plead off from a defence until the weather could get cooler; but as now it has gone down almost to freezing, that excuse would no longer serve, though, perhaps, we should not be wrong in making the opposite one. The truth is, we have been away all the summer, and have not yet got all our statistics into trim; but "Lafourche" may rely that in our next we will be at him with several piles of figures; indeed, the paper is already on the stocks, and we wish to do it the ample justice that its importance demands.

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

We wrote an editorial note a few days ago in rather a desponding mood, about this convention, and as the printer has it in type, will let it go, though the indications since then have become more favorable.

The Governor of Louisiana has appointed a large number of delegates from the state at large, and Gov. Collier has reciprocated by the nomination of over one hundred from Alabama. With these precedents, we yet cherish the hope that the executives of other states will respond in a similar spirit to the invitation, and that the delegations thus honorably appointed will make it a point of conscious duty to be present. City and county meetings have been held in many parts of Louisiana, Arkansas, Mississippi, Tennessee, and Texas, with the view of a like co-operation; and we have had reason, since the penning of our note above referred to, to qualify our complaints touching the inaction of the press, many leading journals having come out nobly and earnestly in aid of the convention. They deserve the lasting approval of the country.

To Country Merchants.

JOHN BALL,

Wholesale Bookseller and Publisher,

[56 Gravier-street, New-Orleans,]

Keeps constantly on hand a most complete assortment of BOOKS and STATIONERY, such as are adapted and purchased for country sales, and which he offers to purchasers on as favorable terms as they can be purchased anywhere.

Particular attention will be paid to all orders from country merchants and private individuals, sent by mail or otherwise, for

Miscellaneous and School Books; and no pains will be spared to complete all such orders to the entire satisfaction of correspondents.

Dealers will please give a call before making their purchases.

Standard Literature.

For sale by THOMAS L. WHITE, No. 53 Canal-street:

Washington Irving's Works Complete—Uniform edition, in 15 volumes.

Prescott's Mexico, Peru, Ferdinand and Isabella—8 vols.

Chambers' Cyclopædia of Literature.

Macaulay's History of England and Miscellany.

Milman's Gibbon's Rome—6 vols. Cheap edition.

Hume's History of England. Cheap edition, 6 vols.

Modern British Essayist.

Burke's Complete Works—9 vols. Boston edition.

NEW PUBLICATIONS

Received from November 15th, at J. C. MORGAN's New-Orleans Literary Depot, Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office.

Letters from England, France and Italy. By Horace Greeley. 1 vol., 12mo.

Fernley Manor; a Novel. By Mrs. Mackenzie Daniel

Beauties of the Court of Charles II.; a series of finely engraved portraits of distinguished Women, with descriptions. By Mrs. Jameson. 1 vol., imperial 8vo.

The Land of Bondage; its Ancient Monuments and Present Condition; being the Journal of a Tour in Egypt. By Jonathan M. Wainwright, D. D. 1 vol., 8vo.

Christmas with the Poets; a collection of Songs, Carols and Descriptive Verses relating to the Festival of Christmas. 1 vol., royal 8vo., exquisitely embellished.

Lyrics of the Heart. By Alaric A. Watts. 1 vol., 8vo.

Legends of the Flowers. By Susan Pindar. A beautiful Juvenile Book.

The Philosophy of the Mechanics of Nature. By Z. Allen. 1 vol., 8vo.

Ollendorff's New Grammar for Spaniards to learn English. 1 vol., 12mo.

Moby Dick; or the Whale. By Herman Melville, author of Typee, Omoo, &c.

Young's Night Thoughts; a new and elegant edition.

The Evening Book; or Fireside Talk. By Mrs. Kirkland. 1 vol., 8vo.

The Women of Early Christianity; a series of Portraits, with appropriate descriptions. By several American Clergymen, edited by the Rev. J. A. Spencer. 1 Vol., imperial 8vo. Elegantly bound.

The Whig Review for September, containing a Portrait and Biographical Sketch of the late S. S. Prentiss.

Cicilia Howard; a Novel. By T. S. Arthur.

The Young Christian. By Jacob Abbott. 1 vol., 12mo.

The Lives of the Queens of Scotland. By Agnes Strickland. Vol. 2.

Creasy's Decisive Battles of the World. 1 vol., 12mo.

Hungary and Kossuth; or an American Exposition of the late Hungarian Revolution. By Rev. B. F. Tefft.

Naval Life; the Midshipman. By Lieut. W. F. Lynch.

Watching Spirits. By Mrs. E. F. Ellet.

The Captains of the Old World; their Campaigns, Characters, &c. By Henry W. Herbert. 1 vol., 12mo.

Rural Homes, Sketches of Houses suited to American Country Life. By George Wheeler. 1 vol., 12mo., with 60 illustrations.

The Fall of Poland. By L. C. Saxton. 2 vols., 12mo.

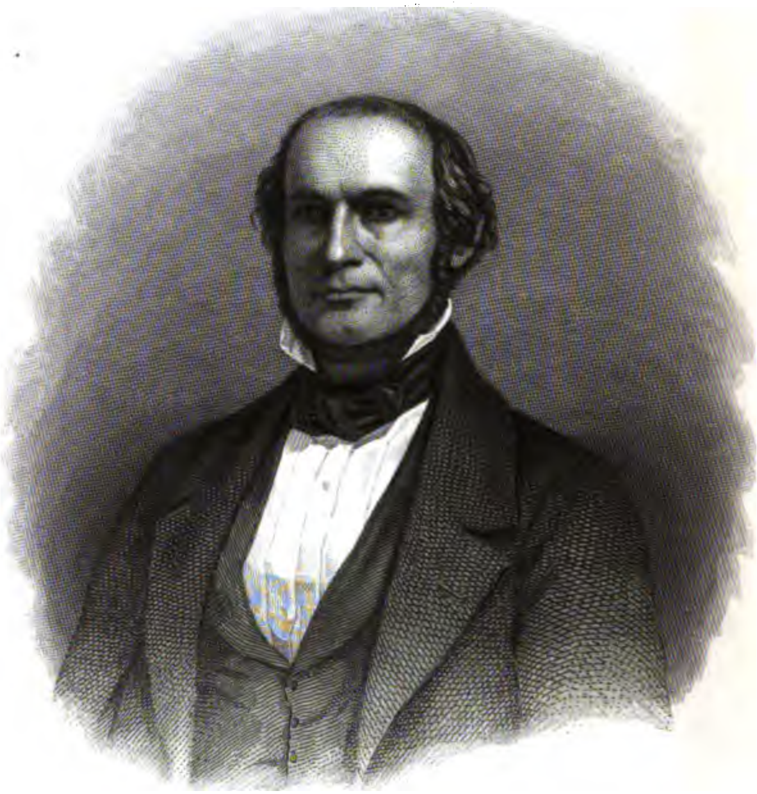
Harper's Magazine for Decem. and Jan.

Eclectic	do	do
International	do	do
Knickerbocker	do	do
Merchants'	do	do
Blackwood's	do	do
Graham's	do	po
Sartain's	do	do
Godey's Lady's Book		do

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine for December and January.

London Art Journal for Nov. and Dec.

London Lancet do



V. K. Stevenson

OF TENNESSEE

President Nashville & Chattanooga Rail Road Co.

Engraved by F. Girsch expressly for De Bow's Review, New Orleans,

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DE BOW'S

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REVIEW.

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V. K. Stevenson

DE BOW'S

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN

REVIEW.

ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.

FEBRUARY, 1852.

VOL. XII., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. II., No. 2.

ART. I.—THE MACON COTTON PLANTERS' CONVENTION.

As we said before, we are willing and anxious to have the important matters of this Convention discussed, by intelligent gentlemen, in our pages.—[Ed.

The Convention of Cotton Planters, recently held in Macon, Geo., as a *substitute* for the report of its Committee of twenty-one, adopted a *printed pamphlet*, purporting to be a report made to a meeting previously held in Tallahassee, Florida, and containing what has been denominated "The Florida Scheme."*

More than two hundred names were registered, as members of the Macon Convention; but the question of adopting the substitute was forced upon the meeting, when there were not forty members present. The substitute, therefore, is not a fair expression of the views of the Convention; and deeming it calculated to do injury, I ask permission to state some of my objections; and I do it in the hope that some practical plan will be presented by the next Convention of Cotton Planters.

In reviewing the *pamphlet*, I will suppose its *figures* to be correct; although on this head I have no certain information.

The first thing which presents itself, is the Irish Bull, "That the *consumption* of cotton has exceeded its *production*:" but let this pass. The next of its bold assertions is, that "the extent of consumption up to this time, has been controlled by the extent of production." And this is asserted in the face of the admitted fact, that at the close of every year, a large surplus of cotton has remained in the hands of the sellers, which was not wanted by the manufacturers—a surplus amounting, at one time, to 1,221,000 bales; and at last dates amounting to 646,000 bales. No one will say that the Manchester or American manufacturers have at any time stopped their spindles, "worked short time," or "spun fine," because of short supplies of the raw material. When those measures were resorted to, it was because of limited demand for their goods; or, as the means of depressing the price of cotton. Where, then, are the evidences that "the consumption of cotton up to this time, has been limited by its production?" The quotation from a paper, read in 1850 before the British Association at Edinburgh, is entitled to the same credit, and no more, that would be given to the opinion of any gentleman not concerned in the manufacture of cotton. The paper gives no facts in support of its assertions; and in the pamphlet under review, we have sufficient evidence, that after laborious investigations of the same subject, a gentleman of considerable talent may fall into great mistakes. It is to be remarked, too, that the writer whose opinion is quoted, was urging upon the Association the favored policy of the British Government and British manufacturers, of stimulating the production of cotton elsewhere, so as to render that country independent of this for its supplies of this all-important article. None but one infatuated with some favorite theory, and heedless of facts, can say, that, "up to this time, the manufacture and consumption of cotton has been limited by its scanty production." It may come to pass at some future day, that we cannot produce as much cotton as the manufacturers may want; but it will be well to await the event, or its near approach, before undertaking to provide for it. Meanwhile, our danger is from the opposite quarter; and the object for which the Convention was called, was to devise correctives for the low prices apprehended from an expected large crop.

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* Already published in the Review, *vide* Nov. No., p. 497.

In each of his speeches, the author of the pamphlet told the Convention, that after supplying the wants of Great Britain, France and the United States, our largest crop would not furnish the rest of the world with half a pound of cotton each, for the clothing of its 900 millions of inhabitants. Alas! for the poor wretches, who, under this privation, must be shivering with cold, or blistering under tropical suns! How can human beings live under such privation? The speaker, however, had forgotten, that other nations, than ourselves, are producers of cotton. People are clothed with it in China, Hindoostan, Japan, Persia, Africa, and other parts of the world; and long before the first bale of cotton was grown in the United States, our slaves were clothed with coarse cotton cloth, imported from the East Indies. We know, too, that cottons are annually imported into Europe from other countries than the United States; and may reasonably infer, that their exports consist of the *surplus* of their crops, above the wants of their own people.

It is unnecessary to waste words upon the array of figures employed in page 4 of the pamphlet, to show the effects of irregular production on prices and consumption. The figures employed are *assumed* to prove a theory; but are in no way furnished by the history of cotton, either in its production or its manufacture. Any other figures might as well have been assumed. And until some evidence be adduced to prove, that there has at any time been less cotton produced than the manufacturers wanted, all such pretended demonstrations of cause and effect, are, of course, *vox et prœterea nihil.*

In page 5, we find the only valuable paragraph contained in the pamphlet. It is the admission, that the evil of over-production may be remedied, by the planters withholding a portion of their crops from market. But this simple and common sense remedy is unceremoniously repudiated as impracticable, because "*it cannot be carried into effect by individual action;* there being no means of procuring the necessary concert," &c.

The next two paragraphs contain the grand scheme of the author, the panacea for all our evils. I will quote, and comment upon it, when I shall have noticed two of the subsequent paragraphs. The author says, (page 6,) "Another inducement for such an organization, (meaning his mammoth company,) may be found in its capacity for increasing the consumption, provided the raw material is furnished."* This increased consumption is to be effected by packing the crop in cotton bagging and cotton rope; but it does not very clearly appear how much increased consumption is dependent upon the organization of such a company, unless the company is to become the manufacturer of the rope and bagging, as well as the salesman of the crop. If the planters will agree to use cotton rope and cotton bagging, manufactories of those articles will be erected by individuals.

On same page we are told that, "the difference between the price in our seaports, and the price in Liverpool, *is the measure of charges and expenses paid upon the cotton crop when sold ! ! !*"

This is a novel discovery, and, if true, the British manufacturer may, with equal justice, say that the difference between the price of his goods at his manufactory, and that for which they are sold to the planters of the South, "*is the measure of the charges and expenses paid, by deductions from the price of his manufactured articles when sold.*"! ! ! And, according to the doctrine of the pamphlet, the manufacturers ought to form a great joint stock company, with warehouses for storage of their goods, until those who want them will come and purchase at the usual consuming prices, less the necessary expense of freight, insurance, &c.

But if, as asserted, the present mode of forwarding our cotton to Liverpool involves a cost of seventeen dollars per bale, why not ship it direct to that market, and, at a cost of only seven dollars per bale, obtain the Liverpool prices?

I will now proceed to the examination of the grand scheme of the pamphlet: that which is to work wonders in curing the evil of irregular and unremunerating prices for cotton. We have the scheme detailed in page 5, in the following words:

> "If we would do any thing certainly and effectively, we must organize a Cotton Planters' Association. This should be chartered by the states of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Louisiana and Florida, with a capital of at least twenty millions of dollars, to be increased in amount as the wants of the business might require. The association should erect, or purchase, extensive warehouses in Charleston, Savannah, Mobile, New-Orleans, Apalachicola and St. Marks, and establish at each of those points a regular commission business, with a view to the storage and sale of the entire crop of the United States.
>
> "For the purpose of securing to themselves the whole cotton commission business, they should establish a minimum price, which for the purposes of

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* Does any one doubt of a sufficiency of the raw material?

this argument, we will fix at 10 to 12½ cents, according to quality and location, and averaging say 11 cents per pound. This should be guaranteed to all their regular customers, and to all parties holding cotton purchased of them, so long as the said cotton remained in their warehouses. The world should have notice that, whenever the cotton offering was not wanted by others, at or above the minimum fixed, it would be wanted by the Association—that, when once purchased, it would never be re-sold, until taken at cost, adding storage, insurance, interest on the investment, with a commission for purchasing, and another for selling. This accumulation of charges would induce the manufacturers to take their supplies, before the company would be required to take any; nor is it, indeed, likely, that they would ever be purchasers to any large extent. Under such a system, the planter would not crowd the market with cotton, as is now the case, and speculators at the minimum price would purchase freely, and hold with confidence."

Let me examine this scheme, and inquire:

1st. Whether such an Association *can be organized?* and,

2d. Whether, if organized, it would, or could, remedy the evils of short prices?

1st. The company is to be chartered by the several cotton producing states. And the object in obtaining a charter, was avowed by the author of the scheme to be, "the exemption of the stockholders from losses as individuals, if, peradventure, the company should become insolvent."

Nor can any man of sense suppose, that under the present state of public feeling, in regard to corporations, any legislature will grant such a charter to a great trading company, which proposes to monopolize all the cotton trade of the United States; and which, according to the showing of its friends, is to divide enormous profits. *Credat Judæus Appellus, non ego!*

If, then, *a charter be necessary* to the organization of the company, the first question may be answered in the negative. But waiving this legislative obstacle, we will suppose a charter obtained; what next? How will the capital of twenty millions of dollars be obtained? Will it be subscribed for, and paid in money? Supposing a willingness to adventure their fortunes in such a scheme, it will not be asserted that its friends have such a sum of money waiting the opportunity of investment; the money must, therefore, be raised by sale of cotton.

It is the general belief that the crop of 1851, which is now being harvested, will prove a large one. It was this belief which induced the meeting of the Macon Convention. The crop is variously estimated at from 2,600,000 to 3,000,000 bales, of 400 lbs. each; and the pamphlet acknowledges a surplus of 646,000 bales of preceding crops. If, then, the crop shall prove equal to the lowest of the estimates, the *supply* of cotton will be 3,200,000, while the *demand* is not estimated to exceed 2,300,000 bales; and under such a state of things, will the price of the article range above 6¼ cents per pound, or twenty-five dollars per bale? At that price it will require a sale of 800,000 bales to raise the proposed capital of twenty millions of dollars. And be it remembered, that these 800,000 bales will go into the hands of the manufacturers, and will supply one-third of their wants for the year. The operation, therefore, will have no tendency to raise prices; on the contrary, it must depress the value of the residue of the crop. Can it be believed that nearly one-third of the cotton crop of the year will be thus disposed of for the purpose of subscribing to the stock of the company? The man who so believes, must have faith in the existence of folly amounting to infatuation.

We will, however, for argument sake, suppose the association to be organized; and proceed to the

Second inquiry,—Whether it would, or could, remedy the evils of short prices?

I will suppose the capital of twenty millions of dollars to have been paid in by stockholders, who had the money ready for investment, when opportunity offered: and will make no deduction from its amount for purchasing, a building, warehouses, salaries of officers, &c., &c.

The company gives "notice to the world, that whenever cotton offering is not wanted by others, at or above 11 cents per pound, it will be wanted by it." Would not cotton be rushed upon it until its capital was invested? At eleven cents per pound, the value of a bale of cotton would be forty-four dollars; and the twenty millions of dollars would purchase 454,000 bales: after which the company would remain dormant, and incapable of action, or life, until some future short crop of cotton should so raise the price, as to enable it to sell what it had purchased. Meanwhile, would this withdrawal from market of 454,000 bales materially raise the price of the 2,700,000 bales left to supply a demand for 2,300,000? I think it would not.

If the capital of twenty millions of dollars was raised by sale of the 800,000 bales before mentioned, the chance for a rise in the price of cotton would be still less; for that sale would have supplied the manufacturers with more than one-third of their wants, and at a minimum price; and they would afterwards dictate the price for the remainder. In this case, too, the capital raised by supplying the manufacturers with 800,000 bales, when invested in cotton at 11 cents, would only withdraw 454,000 bales from market, and leave 1,940,000 bales to supply a remaining demand for 1,500,000 bales.

But the author of the scheme has another way of obtaining his capital of twenty millions of dollars: "The planters will deposit their cotton with the company, and take its stock in payment." Will this plan produce better effects?

The company will not expect subscriptions to its stock, payable in cotton at prices lower than 11 cents; at which rate this plan will place in the company's warehouses nearly the same number of 454,000 bales; after which, as before stated, all capacity for further action ceases; and still no rise in the price of the remainder of the crop will result.

To enable it to raise the price of cotton, the capital of the company should be *forty*, instead of twenty, millions of dollars. Such a sum invested, at 11 cents per pound, would place in its warehouses

900,000 bales of cotton; and leave in the market barely a sufficiency to supply the demand. Under such circumstances, prices would certainly advance. But what would be the inducement to such a subscription of stock? *Cui bono?* The advance in prices would benefit only those who were not stockholders; while their 900,000 bales must remain in the warehouses of the company until short crops or increased consumption should cause the *demand* to exceed the *supply*. Where will the author of the scheme find such public-spirited and self-sacrificing stockholders?

This review of the scheme was, however, unnecessary, inasmuch as failure and bankruptcy has been the result of every such attempt at monopoly; and "vanity of vanities" would be the sentence pronounced upon it by every commercial man.

If, as is proposed, another Cotton Planters' Convention be held in April next, at Montgomery, Alabama, it is to be hoped that better judgment will prevail, and some plain and practicable scheme be adopted.

A MEMBER OF THE CONVENTION.

ART. II.—DIRECT FOREIGN TRADE OF THE SOUTH.*

COMMERCIAL CONVENTIONS.

SOME twelve or fifteen years ago there was a move at the South in favor of direct trade. Conventions were held at various places, and resolutions were passed binding the merchants of the South, like the oath which old Neptune administers to sailors when crossing the Line,—"Never to kiss the maid when they can kiss the mistress, unless they like the maid the best:"—"never to eat hard bread when they can get soft, unless they prefer the hard." So our Conventions resolved, that southern merchants should never buy in the North, when they could purchase at the South, unless they could buy cheaper at the North.

We thought then, that much might be done to recover back to the South its lost trade. But we were of opinion that it could not be done merely by taking sailors' oaths, or by passing Neptunian resolutions. It could not, we thought, be done, unless merchants would put their hands in their pockets: but this they were not prepared to do. And so the impulse then given to southern commerce ended, we believe, with a cargo or two of sugar that was imported from the West Indies into Norfolk *direct*, instead of being carried right by the Capes of Virginia to New-York, and then sent from there back to Norfolk.

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* This able paper is from the pen of that distinguished advocate of southern industrial progress, Lieutenant M. F. Maury, of Washington, D. C.; and yielding to numerou solicitations, we re-publish it from the *Southern Literary Messenger*, believing such t be a most acceptable service to all of our readers.

We mind the time well when these Conventions took place; our heart was in the move, and our spirit went along with the delegates every time. It was in 1837–8, along there—when the British government was about writing Q. E. D. to the practical demonstration which the "Sirius," the "Liverpool," and the "Great Western," were just then giving to the great problem of Ocean Steam Navigation.

France, the French, and the King of the French, were burning with the desire not to be outdone by England. They had the money ready, and were looking for a port on this side to which they might start an opposition line of steamers. It was then proposed that the South should offer to take part of the stock, provided the French would select Norfolk as the terminus for their line—and thus get the line into the hands of Americans; for we "felt it in our bones," that, even at that day, we could beat John Bull.

We did succeed in impressing *one* gentleman, at least, with our notions. Him we knew well: he was an enterprising go-ahead fellow. *Requiescat!* Captivated with the idea of subsidizing the French in the noble enterprise, he petitioned the Virginia legislature to grant him the charter for an Atlantic Steam Navigation Company. He wanted no privileges, no favors, but simply the charter; for he was sure that with the charter and his energies, he could gain the French over as allies, and induce them to select Norfolk for the American terminus of their line.

The legislature refused the charter. The French, meeting with no sympathy on this side, receiving no overtures from the South to send their boats to Norfolk, proceeded to build their vessels. They selected New-York for their American station, and sent over their steamers filled with officers and servants so bedizened with "toggery," that passengers could not tell one from the other. Finally, after a trip or two, one of these steamers, loaded down with passengers and freight, put to sea from New-York; and after getting fairly out into blue water, discovered that the sugar had been forgotten. The captain made a speech at the breakfast table the next morning, and offered to put back for sugar if the passengers would say so: but it was too late. The passengers had already become *sour*. This sugar business broke up the line. Johnny Crapo retired from the contest, and left the field to John Bull, to be by him enjoyed without a competitor for some ten or twelve years.

No human sagacity could penetrate clearly enough into the future then, to see all that has since actually turned up in the way of Ocean Steam Navigation and steamship enterprises; but there is little or no doubt that, had the suggestions of this journal, at the time they were made, been adopted by the advocates of direct trade in the South—that, had the legislature of Virginia granted that Ocean Steam Navigation Charter, Norfolk would at this day have been the centre of steamship enterprise for the United States.

The French steamers would have been built there; they would have been commanded and controlled by Americans who would *never forget their sugar*, nor *make their passengers sour.*

This would have established foundries, machine shops, and ship yards at Norfolk, and have placed her ten or fifteen years ahead of New-York in the steamship business. Norfolk would then have been enabled to get the contracts from the Government for establishing those lines of splendid steamers that are now giving such a tremendous impetus to the business, the trade, travel and traffic of New-York. The lines to the Isthmus would have belonged to Norfolk. Hers would probably have been the Havre and Bremen lines. And the Old Dominion might have claimed also what is now the "Collins' Line."

Geographically speaking, Norfolk is in a position to have commanded the business of the Atlantic seaboard. It is midway the coast. It has a back country of surprising fertility—of great capacity and resources; and as far as the approaches from the sea are concerned, its facility of ingress and egress, at all times and in all weathers, there is from Maine to Georgia, from the St. Johns to the Rio Grande, nothing like Norfolk.

The waters which flow past Norfolk into the sea, divide the producing from the consuming states of the Atlantic slope—the agricultural from the manufacturing—the ice ponds of the North from the cotton fields at the South—the potato patch from the rice plantation—the miner from the planter. And these same waters unite at this one place the natural channels that lead from the most famous regions in the country for corn, wheat and tobacco, to the great commercial marts.

In order to satisfy any one of the vast natural advantages which Norfolk has over any other Atlantic seaport, let us compare the back country which naturally belongs to this ancient borough and modern city, with that which naturally belongs to New-York. We hope the reader will refer to a map of the United States, and with his pencil trace a line on it to include all the country which is drained into the Hudson River:—for that is the back country which naturally belongs to the city of New-York.

Now let him, in like manner, draw another line to include within it all the country that is drained into the Chesapeake Bay; for this is the back country which naturally belongs to Norfolk. To do this, he will begin and run along upon the ridge—the "Divide," the western people call it—between the Delaware and the Chesapeake.

Running thence northwardly, his pencil-mark will include all of Pennsylvania that is in the valley of the Susquehannah—all of Maryland this side of the mountains—the valley of the Potomac, the Rappahannock, the York and the James rivers, with the valley of the Roanoke and a great part of the State of North Carolina, whose only outlet to the sea is via Norfolk.

Such is the back country that nature has given to Norfolk for her commercial foundation—and such to New-York for the corner-stone of her commercial edifice.

Virginia saw these advantages, and slept upon them. She knew that Nature had placed them there and made them hers. She never dreamed that man could take them away. But man has. The enterprise of man has extended the back country of New-York from the sea to the lakes; from the waters of Long Island Sound to the waters of the Gulf of Mexico. It has turned the commerce of the St. Lawrence down the Hudson, and placed the mouth of the Mississippi as much at Sandy Hook as it is at the Balize.

Thus did New-York while Virginia was sleeping. Just as she was beginning to wake up, chance and the course of events threw in her way the steamship enterprise of the French. Her merchants, however, could not get their hands in their pockets, or rather they stood with their hands in their pockets for ten years, and quietly looked on while New-York was projecting her plans, displaying her enterprise and monopolizing all those steam advantages; and now that New-York has got fairly under way, they in the South are again rousing up the people and calling their conventions in favor of steamships and direct trade. Better late than never. We welcome the move with all our heart, and mean to support it with all our strength —save and except the Neptunian resolutions. We do not go for them.

We do not wish to discourage the move for a line of steamers from Norfolk to Europe, as great as the odds against Norfolk now are. We know that there are business men in the South, who, if once they put their hands in their pockets and their shoulders to the wheel, have energy, enterprise and capacity enough for anything that energy, enterprise and capacity can effect.

While we do not wish to discourage that move, therefore, we have a proposition to make, which, by timely adoption, will, we think, do much towards recovering for the South her lost advantages, and that with interest. This proposition is another steamship enterprise. It may meet the fate of the former one, but if so, the end of the next 15 years will show its rejection to be a piece of short-sighted policy, more to be deplored than all the inaction heretofore observed by Virginia with regard to her natural resources and commercial advantages.

The South wants to regain her direct trade: Let us first examine how the South came to lose it, and the North to get it. We shall then know the better how to proceed, and what to do towards recovering it.

The course of navigation from Europe to this country used to be down along the coast of Africa to the region of the N. E. trade winds. These winds are fair winds for getting to the westward. Ships took them, and with them ran over to the United States; falling in with the southern coast first, and making the land of Charleston or the capes of the Carolinas or of Virginia, they would then take a fresh departure for New-York, Boston, or their port of destination, wherever it was, among the New-England States.

This made of Charleston and Norfolk a sort of relay station, and placed them on the way-side of the commercial highway, leading from Old to New-England.

It was rarely that vessels were found in those days to sail more than four or five knots under the most favorable circumstances. About two miles the hour was the average rate of speed for merchantmen in those days. It was not so fast as the gulf stream would carry a log.

Along the route now pursued by vessels bound from Liverpool to New-York, the winds are adverse, and the gulf stream has to be stemmed nearly all the way. The merchantmen of the last century were incapable of beating up against wind and tide both; consequently the northern passage was closed to them, and the usual route was to follow the track of Columbus—pass through the Sargasso Sea, catch the N. E. trades, and getting on the parallel of some southern port in America, to steer due west until they made the land.

If the merchantman of that day, after thus making her land-fall, ascertaining her position and keeping away for her port, met a N. W. gale or a snow-storm, as in winter she was very apt to do off New-York or Boston, her course was to run back south, and to lay in Charleston until the next spring, waiting for good weather, and a fair opportunity for going northward again.

Though the existence of the gulf stream was known more than two centuries ago, the fact that its waters were warmer than those of the sea along side of it, and the idea that this difference of temperature could be made available for longitude at sea, was not promulgated to navigators until 1796–7.

This is an epoch in navigation, and from it commences an era in the course of trade between the old world and the new.

In those days, if the mariner at sea could lay his out-spread hand down upon his chart, and say that it certainly covered the place of his ship, he was called a "lucky dog," and entitled to be considered a navigator.

We beg leave to illustrate, and to instance, as we go along: In 1779, when John Adams was returning to the United States, from his first mission to France, he came in a French man-of-war, and men-of-war were much better navigated in those days than merchantmen. After leaving the shores of France, they did not *discover* their longitude until they got soundings in the waters of America.

We quote from his diary.

"Saturday, 17th." It was July. "Three days past we have sounded for the Grand Bank, but have not found it."*

Two weeks after that, viz. on the 31st, when they did find bottom, he remarks: "The weather, the wind, the *discovery of our longitude*, give us all fine spirits this morning."

A modern vessel would sail across the Atlantic while the "frigate Sensible" was seeking her longitude.

Such was the course of navigation, such the difficulties in the way of trade across the Atlantic prior to 1796, that Charleston and Norfolk, of necessity, became the half-way houses, the great entrepots of traffic, the points of communication between Europe and the "colonies."

From 1776 dates a new era in the political affairs of this country —and from 1796—twenty years after—and so on at intervals of twenty years, dates regularly a new era in the affairs of commerce and navigation.

Then—in '96—it was made known to navigators how, by dipping a thermometer into the water as they approached our shores, they might tell whether they were in or out of the gulf stream—whether they were on this or that side of it, and consequently know their longitude. This was a discovery. It was hailed as such by the whole sea-faring community. Works were written on "Thermal Navigation;" and the streaks of hot and cold water in and near the gulf stream, were likened to blue and red ribbons, which Providence had stretched upon the green bosom of the Atlantic, to warn the navigator of his approach to our shores, and to tell him his longitude.

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* Life and Works of John Adams, Vol. III. pp. 226–7.

At that time, too, great improvements in naval architecture were about to take place. The keels of the fastest ships that we have in our navy at this day were laid then.

These discoveries and improvements enabled ships bound from Europe to approach the coast of the United States with the gulf stream for a beacon; and they, moreover, enabled merchantmen, by being swift of foot, to turn to windward better, and consequently to beat over from Europe against the gulf stream and the prevailing westerly winds of the direct route.

Thus traders began to come direct to our northern ports, instead of first touching at the southern for a land-fall and good weather.

Thus Charleston ceased to be a half-way house, and was made an outside station. The South, quietly and in silence, looked on while this revolution was making its changes.

After another period of twenty years, viz., in 1816, another era in commercial affairs, and the business of the sea. was commenced. In that year, Jeremiah Thompson, Isaac Wright, and others—in honor of whom the city of New-York should erect a monument—commenced the system of packet ships.

They put three vessels of 300 or 400 tons each, on the line to Liverpool, to sail on stated days regularly once a month, or thereaway. The croakers all thought, and many said, that these ships would be "no go"—that they were entirely too large, and that often the day of sailing would arrive when there would be neither freight nor passengers to take. But the staid old Quaker who was in the concern knew what he was about. He sailed on the regular day, and gave his captains the postage upon all the letters conveyed to and fro, and for a quick passage he promised them a new gown for their wives, sometimes a new coat for themselves.

The "Liners," as the packet ships of New-York came to be called, went on increasing in numbers and size and in favor with merchants and ship owners, until the sea became white with their sails, and New-York the focus from which they diverged to all ports of the world, and to which they all returned.

Opposition lines were got up to Liverpool, and independent ones established to London and Havre. Besides these, lines of packet ships, packet brigs, and packet schooners were established between New-York and every sea-port town in the United States. They all had their regular day of sailing, and daily fleets of them were to be seen going out and coming into the harbor of New-York.

Having their regular days of sailing for New-York, they would bring anything at any rate of freight that would pay for putting in and taking out, rather than return empty. Hence they would take for a mere song, pine wood from Virginia, naval stores from North Carolina, stones from New-England, ores from Cuba, &c., which last were again taken without freight to England, because Cuba ores served for ballast.

Thus the packet system built up New-York, and made her the great central market for all the surplus produce of all sorts from all parts of the seaboard. Whatever the country produced for sale, samples of it were brought by the packets to the wharves of New-York, and thus the warehouses of that city became an immense variety store, in which is to be found whatever is to be bought or sold in the United States.

The packet ships carried the mails across the Atlantic. They made New-York the point of communication with the Old World; and they controlled the business of dispatch for the whole country. They were the "Adams' Express" of the day. The merchants of the North and the South all sent by them for their spring and fall fashions—their light goods, small parcels—all special orders were executed in that way. So completely had they monopolized everything for New-York, in the way of foreign business, travel, and correspondence, that in the year 1837, when they had served out their twenty years, there was not a single vessel that cleared from Boston for Liverpool. But they had run their twenty years, and another era in the business of commerce was about to arise.

In 1837 commenced the era of Ocean Steam Navigation, though twenty years before that the South had sent out an *avant courier* from Georgia; but the South rested content with the honor of being the first to stride across the Atlantic under steam. This was the time—'37—when the idea was thrown out that Virginia should offer to co-operate with the French and invite them to send their steamers into Norfolk.

The steamers, contrary to all expectations, gave an impulse to the packet ships, the packet ships re-acted upon the steamers, and both greatly increased in numbers and enlarged the business of the country. Boston got its line of steamers, sent its ships to Liverpool, and recovered all the trade, and more, too, that it had lost when steamers first began to ply.

The steamers, it was found, so far from interfering with the regular "Liners," created a business of their own. New-York looked on quietly for ten years, before she understood this matter, or began to move in it. But New-York, during the interval, was feeling the way with English capital, as in the mean time Norfolk might have done with French. Finally, New-York got the federal government committed to the tune of many millions for her steamship enterprise. Thus backed up, New-York launched her ocean steamers, and now leads the world in that navigation.

There is room for opposition both to Europe and the gulf, but New-York is a powerful competitor, and the odds are now greatly in her favor.

It is curious to look back at the important commercial and political events which have taken place regularly at intervals of double decades, one after the other.

We commence with 1776: every generation continues in the majority for about twenty years. When the people, therefore, who had the ascendency in '76, had passed into the minority, their successors —the next generation—signalized the occasion and their accession to the majority, by turning the Atlantic coast, in a commercial point of view, upside down; by removing Charleston from the half-way to an outside station on the road between the old world and the new—for at that period the direct trade of Charleston alone was greater than that of New-York and all the New-England States together. The philosopher, with no other instrument than the water-thermometer, did all this.

When this generation had fretted out its sway of twenty years in the majority, had reached its sere and yellow leaf, and passed into the minority, its successor signalized its installation by the establishment of the packet system—a system which is at the bottom and the top of New-York's commercial ascendency, operating as a sort of first principle among the real causes of the great business prosperity of that city.

If we were asked to trace back to the very source those influences which first obtained expression in the construction of the Erie canal, we should point to the water-thermometer and the packet system. It was on account of the prosperity, the commercial advantages, power and influence, that New-York derived from these, that she was enabled to undertake that work. Each new work added more and more to her power and wealth; but the key to it all, the very foundations of that wealth and power, commenced with the water-thermometer and were laid in the packet system. The water-thermometer and the packet system gave her the power to remove the commercial mouth of the St. Lawrence from the Straits of Belleisle to Sandy Hook—to turn the Mississippi valley upside down, causing the produce thereof to flow north and enter the sea under the highlands of Navesink.

These are go-ahead times, and the rising generation is crowding so fast upon us of the Ocean Steam Navigation era, that, though we have but five years of our allotted time left to run, we doubt whether our successor will not crowd us out before the full term of our double decade shall have expired.

Before 1857, we hope to see the Isthmus pierced with commercial thoroughfares and great national highways—before '57, we hope to see the proposition which we have to make, in full blast, recovering and restoring back to the South in ten-fold measure, all its lost advantages—its foreign commerce, its direct trade, its importing business, and commercial prosperity.

Great Britain and Europe are not the only countries in the world with which commercial intercourse is desirable; nor are they the only ones whose trade can enrich and make prosperous.

Let the *South* not forget to look to the *South*. Let her study the

Its tributaries flow east and west; and each one contributes to the main stream itself many productions that are peculiar to its own latitude and climate.

The Amazon flows east. It runs along a parallel of latitude. Save and except the changes due to elevation, its climates are the same, and its banks, from source to mouth, are lined with the same growth. Its tributaries run north and south, and the products supplied by one of these, to the main stream, are duplicates of the products to be contributed by all.

In our river valley, winter and summer, spring and autumn, mark the year and divide the seasons; in the other, the seasons are the wet and the dry, and the year is all summer. One valley is in the northern hemisphere, the other in the southern. When it is seedtime on one side, the harvest is ripe on the other.

The Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico are twin basins. They are seas Mesopotamian, and wholly American. The great equatorial current having its *genesis* in the Indian Ocean, and doubling the Cape of Good Hope, sweeps by the mouth of the Amazon, and after traversing both Caribbean Sea and Gulf of Mexico, it meets with the gulf stream, and places the commercial outlet of that river almost as much in the Florida pass as is the mouth of the Mississippi River itself. Two travelers may set out from the Yucatan Pass; one north for the sources of the Missouri, the other south for the head waters of the Amazon. If, when the former reaches the base of the Rocky Mountains, he will cut a tree down, and let it fall in the river, so that it will drift with the current without lodging by the way, it will meet in the Straits of Florida one cut and cast into the Amazon, by the other traveler, from the sides of the Andes, and floated down that river in like manner. The natural route of the drift-wood from both to the open sea, is through the Gulf of Mexico, around the peninsula of Florida, and so out into the Atlantic through the gulf stream.

These twin basins are destined by Nature to be the greatest commercial receptacles in the world. No age, clime, nor quarter of the globe, affords any parallel or any conditions of the least resemblance to these which we find in this sea or gulf.

What other arm of the ocean is between two continents with opposite seasons? Where is there another gulf stream uniting the waters of an Amazon with the waters of a Mississippi—an extra-tropical with an intertropical river—and placing the commerical outlet of both before the doors of one and the same people? Where, in the wide ocean, or the wider world, is there another Mesopotamian Sea, that is the natural outlet for a system of river basins draining an extent of arable and fertile lands greater than the Continent of Europe can contain;—that yield all the productions of the torrid and the temperate zones;—and that are so situated withal, that from opposite hemispheres, with their opposite seasons, they will deliver into the markets a crop every six months? Famine can never visit such a land. The double chance of a crop in double hemispheres, frees it from any such liability.

In consequence of the winds and currents of the sea, the course of navigation from the mouths of these two rivers, as well as from all parts of the Gulf and Caribbean Sea, is such, as to compel every vessel that trades in their markets, whether it be with the produce of the great Amazonian valley at the South, or the mighty valley of the West,—we repeat, the course of navigation is such as to compel every vessel so freighted for Europe, for Africa, for India—nay, for Rio de Janeiro and for South America itself, to pass the very offings of our southern ports on their way to market.

From the Gulf of Mexico, all the great commercial markets of the world are down hill. A vessel bound from the gulf to Europe, places herself in the current of the gulf stream, and drifts along with it at the rate, for part of the way, of 80 or 100 miles a day. If her destination be Rio, or India, or California, her course is the same as far north as the Island of Bermuda.

And when there shall be established a commercial thoroughfare across the Isthmus, the trade winds of the Pacific will place China, India, New Holland, and all the islands of that ocean, down hill also from this sea of ours. In that case, the whole of Europe must pass by our very doors on the great highway to the markets both of the East and the West Indies.

This beautiful Mesopotamian Sea is in a position to occupy the summit level of navigation, and to become the great commercial receptacle of the world. Our rivers run into it, and float down with their currents the surplus articles of merchandise that are produced upon their banks. Arrived with them upon the bosom of this grand marine basin, there are the currents of the sea and the winds of heaven so arranged by nature, that they drift it and waft it down hill and down stream to the great market places of the world.

To one who has never studied the course of the winds and currents of the sea, aud the influence which they exert upon the routes which vessels must pursue in order to accomplish their voyages to and fro across the ocean, it appears startling to be told that the shores of the southern states, of Florida and the Carolinas, are on the wayside of vessels bound from the mouth of the Amazon, the Orinoko and the Magdalena rivers to Rio de Janeiro as well as to Europe. The way out upon the high seas from the mouth of these rivers, and from that of the Mississippi, is practically one and the same.

To a vessel under canvass, Norfolk is not half as far, in point of time, from the mouth of the Amazon, as is Rio in Brazil.

On account of the winds and currents of the Atlantic, a vessel bound from the Amazon to Rio, has first to sail to the northward until she reaches the northern parallel of 25° or 30° before she can begin to stand south. It is the same, no matter what be her destination, provided it be not the West Indies, nor any of the ports in the Caribbean Sea, or Gulf of Mexico.

Norfolk and Charleston may be called half-way houses from the Amazon and the Gulf, to New-York, to England and Europe, and to all ports in Africa, South America, India, and around Cape Horn.

Indeed, they are the half-way houses from Amazonia to all the markets of the world, the way to which is across the seas.

We wish to fix attention as to the great advantages which our geographical and physical position gives us of the United States, in contending for the commerce to which the valleys of the Amazon, the Orinoko and the Magdalena are destined at some day to give rise.

Before we submit the proposition which we design to make to the merchants of the South in particular, and to the people of these United States in general, we wish to call attention to another physical condition which nature has connected with the South American trade, and particularly with the commerce to which her river basins are to give rise. And that is, that not only do none of these river basins, but none of the continents of the southern hemisphere, afford the contrasts for forming seafaring communities among their inhabitants. Who ever heard of Brazilian seamen, or of the "mariners of Peru?" We have heard of the Gauchos, the Llaneros, and the horsemen of South America, but never of its seamen.

In order to become sailors, people must use the sea; and that they may use it, familiarity with it from boyhood and in early life is one of the pre-requisites. Preliminary to this pre-requisite is a deeply articulated shore line;—a sea front richly indented with bays, bights, gulfs and harbors, thrusting themselves far up into the country on one hand, with capes, promontories and peninsulas pushing far out into the sea on the other,—thus increasing the length of water line;—thus bringing the inhabitants and the sea into close proximity and into the presence of each other.

Let any one of our readers who lives between tide-water and the Blue Ridge, cast about him, in his neighborhood, and tell how many boys and young men have left it and their country-life to become sailors; small, indeed, is the number. Even there the people are too far from the sea to take to it for a living.

Now let him take the map and look at the stiff, rigid shore line, not only of South America, but of the southern continent generally, and then let him compare their almost isleless coasts with the finely articulated and beautifully contrasted shore lines of the northern hemisphere: the Gulf of Mexico with its gems; the peninsula of Florida; its string of islands; the sounds, and bays, and gulfs at the north; the Mediterranean reaching a thousand miles and more back into the heart of the continent; the Red Sea separating it almost in two; the Baltic and the Black; the gulfs and bays and bights and peninsulas of India and China. Let him look at these physical features; let him contrast the two hemispheres in this respect, and see how much more maritime in feature one is than the other; let him study these features on a map of the world, and he will perceive how that nature has decreed that the seat of maritime power, strength and greatness, shall be in the northern, not in the southern hemisphere.

Another condition required in the constitution of sea-faring communities is a niggardly soil, or other sources of a scanty livelihood to the laboring man. In these days, men forsake the land for the sea only, when the sea affords better means of living than the land.

Where in the history of the world did the people of any nation ever become maritime in their habits, when their climates were mild, their soil kind, and lands cheap? There is no such instance on record. Who ever heard of bodies of men forsaking the cheap lands and beautiful climates of the Mississippi valley to become mariners, only that they may wring from the seas a hard-earned, coarse, sometimes scanty and often dangerous subsistence?

If the Mississippi Valley do not produce seamen enough to fetch and carry its own produce across the ocean, and to do its own commerce, much less will that of the Amazon with its softer climates and more benignant soils.

Therefore, whatever be the extent of the business which the Amazon may have to offer commerce, the fetching and the carrying of it must be done by sailors from our own side of the equator. Why may they not be Virginia and Carolina sailors? Those states have along the sea-shore pine barrens poor enough to drive men, women and children all to sea for a living.

In the Amazonian trade, the winds for us are fair to go and fair to come. And we of the Atlantic sea-coast are the only people for whom they are favorable both ways.

The voyage from the capes of Virginia or from Charleston to the Amazon, is the most certain voyage, as to the length of time, that is to be found between any two ports in the Atlantic Ocean. In eighteen or twenty days, a sailing vessel can go and come, the year round. The N. E. trade winds carry her there; and they bring her back. They are "soldiers' winds." Therefore, among the inducements which the South has to move her in the matter of commencing to establish commercial relations and business ties in that direction, is the future one of competing, in her own vessels and with her own sailors, for the carrying trade of that magnificent water-shed.

The proposition, therefore, which we have to make, is with regard to a line of steamers from Norfolk, Charleston or Savannah, to the mouth of the Amazon.

Para is its "New-Orleans." It is the city at its mouth. It has a population of some 15,000 or 20,000 inhabitants. There is a line of steamers already in operation from Rio to Para.

From Savannah to Para, the distance is about 2,500 miles; from Para to Rio, 2,100. This, at the rate of the best performance of Collins' steamer "Baltic," would give for the passage between Rio and the United States thirteen days for coming and thirteen for going.

The time occupied now in going and coming by sailing vessels, is about ninety days.

Suppose we lengthen this computed passage, and base our estimates upon the supposition that the time to Rio, by this line of steamers, will really require twenty instead of thirteen days, viz.: ten to Para and ten thence to Rio.

The effect of such a communication would be to turn the whole correspondence and travel connected with the Atlantic slope of South America, through Norfolk, or whatever port may be selected for the American terminus of the line. No European nation can successfully compete with us in this line of steamers, because their distance from Para is more than double ours.

Now it should be recollected that our commercial transactions with Brazil and the valley of the Rio de la Plata, are already worth more than they are with any of the countries of Europe, except Great Britain and France.

At this instant, the "Levee" at Para affords foreign commerce enough from the valley of the Amazon to give annual freight to a fleet of fifty sail. But this is nothing to what it will do when the stimulants of civilization, agriculture, navigation and commerce shall be applied to that prodigious wilderness of wealth.

Of more than twice the area of the Mississippi valley, that of the Amazon is much more bountiful. There the labor of one day in seven is enough to crown the board of the husbandman with plenty.

The vegetable kingdom sits enthroned there in surpassing grandeur, sublimity and power. Its energies are in ceaseless display, its forces in perpetual activity, vigor and health. There is there no falling of the leaf; no season of repose in the vegetable economy: and consequently, no period for the decay of vegetation; no time for the development of noxious gases and pestilential miasmata. As soon as these are evolved from one plant, they are absorbed by another in the perpetual summer: the result is, a climate of great salubrity.

The display there of the vegetable force is terrific. Here with us, as we travel along the sea-shore, we see the vegetation standing back and separated from the water by the battle-ground between the waves and the land. Strewed with debris, and covered with fragments thrown up from the bottom of the sea, or uprooted from the base of the hills, this field of battle with us is a sandy, barren waste. In it, no subject of the vegetable kingdom is permitted to take root; and not a member of the whole animal family is able to gather even the most scanty means of subsistence from it. The scene of the most perfect desolation to be found on the face of our planet, is the field of strife on our shores between the waves and the winds and the dry land.

In Amazonia, the mineral gives place to the vegetable kingdom in the conflict, and a new combatant enters the field. The forces of the vegetable kingdom there, march down for the fight to the very water's edge. A storm arises; the waves come and beat back the vegetation, bearing it down and heaping upon it piles of sand and shells, and cast up from the depths below. In a few days the tremendous power of vegetation recovers, and it is seen marching down over the sand banks and piles of fragments, and planting its foot again upon the water, in the water and under the water, and pushing out its advance posts in lines of green far into the sea.

The lilies of that valley attain such gigantic vigor and proportions that a single leaf will float a man.

If there be such a display of vegetable growth in the wild state, of what is such a climate not susceptible when it shall be assisted by the arts of cultivation?

Peruvian bark—cascarilla and cinchona, as the Spaniards call it—is found in the valley of the Amazon, and nowhere else. It is cut from the banks of one of its navigable tributaries, packed upon the backs of Peruvian sheep—carried up beyond the clouds into the regions of perpetual snow on mountain tops, and transported beyond the Andes, 600 miles to the Pacific Ocean; arrived there, the ceroon, which, at the place of production in the great Amazon basin, was worth only a few pence, now commands from eighty to one hundred dollars.

Thus the world is supplied, over the mountains and around Cape Horn by sheep, asses and ships, with that drug. Were steam once to force its way up the Amazon, this drug would come down the river and pass by our doors on its way to market. That trade, in its present state, is worth upwards of half a million annually. The use of quinine is increasing, and the demand therefore for the bark must continue to increase.

On the steppes of the Andes where they serve as a water-shed for the Amazon, are to be found flocks numbering thousands of sheep covered with fleeces of the finest and the rarest wool; and yet it is scarcely worth the shearing, so great are the difficulties of getting it to market. Nevertheless, were it possible to place this wool on a raft that would keep the current, and were it to be thus launched on the stream where the flocks go to drink, it would drift down the Amazon; and being delivered by it to the winds and currents of the sea, it might, without other guide, be found in the gulf stream off Cape Hatteras; so direct is the natural route even from the remote corners of that valley to this country.

Such are the physical conditions which invite the South to the study of the commercial resources, the advantages of trade, and the interests to her navigation in that quarter.

In the valley of the Amazon are mines of silver and gold of immense yield. There, too, are found and wrought the great quicksilver mines of the world; and there, too, situated far down towards the Atlantic in that valley are the mines of diamonds, of gems and precious stones, which have dazzled princes, lent splendor to the crowned heads of Europe, and added brilliancy to the pageants of all people.

There is now on the statute books of Portugal a royal ordinance forbidding any of the productions of India to be cultivated in Brazil. This was when Brazil was Portuguese; and when Portugal was apprehensive lest the spices of Brazil would injure her eastern commerce and possessions.

The cinnamon of Amazonia is superior to that of Ceylon; its gums and ornamental woods are said to be of surpassing beauty, variety, excellence and value.

Men of science who have studied the physical conditions of Amazonia and India, and who have compared the climatology of the two regions, are of opinion, that in this magnificent wilderness of America, are to be found both soil and climate suitable for the production of every spice, gum, resin and drug that is grown in the East.

The spirit which moved men in the days of knight-errantry, which drove them in the time of the crusades, and which, at a later period, carried them across the seas, and conducted them to the New World in search of adventure and geographical discovery, is still as rife in this country as ever it was in the world. But it has assumed a new character : it has doffed the tinsel array of former times, and laid aside the pomp and circumstance with which it was wont to influence the imaginations of men, to dazzle their minds, bewilder their judgments and beguile their energies. Guided now by the lights of knowledge and improvement, which ornament the age in which we live, this active, restless and misdirected spirit of former times has been tamed down. Eminently utilitarian in its character, it now goes abroad with commerce, and seeks adventures in the fields of honest industry—achievements in the paths of peace.

It is this spirit, which, if once permitted upon the wings of free navigation to enter the grand river basins of South America, will cause the wilderness there to blossom, and the whole land to smile under the tillage and the worship of a peaceful and happy population.

Therefore, let the South look to the South for trade and commerce ; let her, in the peaceful Christian spirit of the day, cultivate with Brazil the relations of friends and neighbors ; let her foster, by all means in her power, liberal commercial relations with a region which has such vast possessions, such countless treasures, such infinite resources, to make valuable its future commerce—rich and great the people who are to enjoy it.

There is no colonizer, civilizer, nor Christianizer like commerce.

Encourage commerce, therefore, with the valley of the Amazon, and you encourage its settlement, and its cultivation, and the development of its resources. And in doing this you keep bright also that precious chain with golden links, which bind nations together in peace and friendship.

In the whole domain of future commerce, the greatest boon for the people of the United States, is in the settlement of Amazonia. We are bound to enjoy largely of the commerce to which such settlement is to give rise.

The people who go there will, for many generations yet to come, be dependent upon the United States for their manufactories, for articles of fancy and luxury, and for all varieties of merchandise, save and except those articles—and they in their unelaborated state—which they may dig from the mine, or gather from the field or the forest. The climate there is unfavorable for the workshop, and the soil will readily yield to the husbandman the richest of harvests wherewith, by exchange and barter, all his wants may be satisfied.

What would any of the maritime nations not give for a monopoly of the commerce of the valley of the Mississippi as it now is—and what is that commerce now, compared to what that of the valley of the Amazon must be?

Settlement there, will transfer the productions of India and place them in Amazonia at our feet ; so that the ships of all nations that may flock there to buy and carry them away, will have to pass by our gates.

Surely an enterprise that has for its future the possibility of such results: an enterprise which has for its object the lifting up of the Indies and the setting of them down within a week, by steam, at our very doors—surely an enterprise which looks to such a revolution in the commerce of the world—to such a carrying trade, and to such a monopoly of it to ourselves—cannot fail to find favor with every true-hearted American, whether he come from the North, or the South, the East or the West.

The beginning, it may be said, is too small for the end—the means proposed not adequate to the result. Not so: the fall of an apple was the beginning of a science. Have we not seen how by dipping a thermometer in the sea, our Atlantic coast, as it regards the course of navigation and trade with Europe, was turned end for end? And how, by Jeremiah Thompson's packet ship of 300 tons and the enterprise of New-York, the Mississippi valley has been turned upside down, and the commercial mouth of the St. Lawrence river lifted up and brought by canal and railway down to Sandy Hook? We do not mean to commit ourselves to the position that a line of steamers from Norfolk to Para would be self-sustaining *now*. We have been speaking of the future, and maintaining that the establishment of the line *now* would give the South many and great prospective advantages that the South perhaps never would enjoy to the full extent, unless she commence now and prepare foundations suitable for that magnificent commercial structure which is certainly at some day to arise out of that valley.

To encourage the enterprise now, there is the carrying of the Brazilian and the Buenos Ayrean mails. The correspondence between the United States, Para, Rio, Montevideo, and the Argentine Republic is extensive; and the revenue to be derived for the transportation of these mails would, with or without previous contract, go far towards supporting the line; and the sources of all its business, freight, passengers and mail matter, would rapidly increase.

So far, geographical position only is in favor of the South. The facts we have stated, the arguments we have used, commend the enterprise as strongly to the North as to the South; and if the South do not make haste soon to take it up and embark in it, we may rest assured the North will not be slow. The contract for carrying the mails would protect those who may be first to embark in this field, from competition for a few years, which, while the company is getting a foothold, is no small consideration.

It is useless, because the attempt would be vain, to draw a picture of what commerce and navigation with the Amazon, or on the Amazon, or up the Amazon, or down the Amazon, would do in a few years; or how the silver from the mines of Potosi and Pasco, the gold of Peru and Bolivia, and copper and tin, would all flow down the Amazon to the Atlantic, instead of crossing the Cordilleras to the Pacific. We are now informed of gold diggings, placers and washings, on the eastern slopes of the Andes, that would vie with those of California. They are in the Indian country of Amazonia; but the energy and enterprise to fight, dig and wash, are not to be found among the people there. This, however, we regard as among the least valuable of the immense resources of that valley. Subdued to commerce, it would be a boon indeed.

There is, moreover, another point of view in which the valley of the Amazon, with its magnificent and interesting future, presents itself to the American mind.

That view we will hastily sketch, presenting only the main features of it.

That valley is a slave country. The European and the Indian have been contending with its forests for 300 years, and they have made no impression. If ever the vegetation there be subdued and brought under; if ever the soil be reclaimed from the forest, the reptile, and the wild beast, and subjected to the plough and the hoe, it must be done by the African, with the American axe in his hand. It is the land of parrots and monkeys. Wherever they are found, there the African delights to dwell; and he alone is equal to the task which man has to accomplish with the axe in the valley of the Amazon.

At the North, the spirit of emancipation has been pressing the black man down to the South. He is now confined almost upon the waters of the gulf. In the South, the same spirit has pressed him up to the North, and assigned to him the valley of the Amazon, as his last resting-place upon this continent. When that valley is subdued and peopled up, it is not for us to divine what will happen;—it is too far away in the mists of the future for our ken. Sufficient is it for us to know, that even then God, in his own wise providence, will order the destiny of the black and the white race to be fulfilled, whatever it may be.

Therefore, humanly speaking, and humanly perceiving, the settlement of the valley of the Amazon, its relations to this country, its bearings upon our future commerce and institutions, appear to be so close, so intimate, and withal so potential, that the destiny of the United States seems to be closely connected with, wrapped up in, and concealed by this question.

Storms will come at sea, and crises will arise on the land; but no mariner or statesman ever escaped the one or avoided the other by failing to prepare for them. When the ship is too much pressed—knowing that she may be—the prudent seaman has all,—ready provided, and at hand,—the means of relieving her. In doing this, he considers the safety of the vessel, of the cargo, and of all on board. We propose to follow his example with regard to the ship of state.

The institution of slavery, as it now exists in this country, fills the minds of its statesmen with anxious solicitude. What is to become of it? If abolished, how are so many people to be got rid of? If retained, how are they to be controlled? In short, when they have increased and multiplied according to the capacity of the states to hold them, what is to be done with them, whether they be bond or free?

The "slave states," so called, have the black lines drawn about them. There will soon be no more Mississippi lands to clear, no more cotton fields to subdue, and unless some means be devised of getting rid of the negro-increase, the time must come,—and sooner or later it will come,—when there will be an excess in these states, of black people. This excess will be brought about by the operation of two causes:—natural increase of the blacks on one hand, and emigration of the whites on the other. The slaves may go from one slave state to another, but they cannot go out of the slave territory. Therefore in the slave territory must they remain obedient to the command, "increase and multiply." As their numbers spread, and as their labor becomes less and less valuable,—as in process of time it seems likely to do,—owners will sell or leave their negroes behind, and emigrate to other parts; thus by their absence increasing the proportion of blacks to whites.

The New-England States and the Middle States did not emancipate their slaves; they banished them. They passed their post-natal and prospective laws of emancipation, it is true; but they did not command the master to let the slave go free; before the time came round for the slave to go free, he had, in most cases, been taken off to the South and sold there; so that the so-called emancipation at the North was simply a transfer to the South of the slaves of the North—an act of banishment; nothing more.

Statement from the Census Tables of the free colored persons in the New-England and in the Southern States:

	1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
New-England	13,156	17,317	19,488	20,756	21,331	22,634
Southern States	27,983	51,923	91,402	115,373	156,633	183,766

Per Cent. of increase.

New-England	3.1	1.2	0.6	0.3	0.6
Southern States	8.5	7.6	2.3	3.5	1.8

Besides their natural increase, the free blacks of New-England receive large accessions to their numbers from the free colored emigrants and runaway slaves from the South. It is well known that the tide of emigration of the free men of color flows North;—there never has been a reflux of it towards the South.

Thus, what is taken from the South by emigration, is added to the North; and therefore in a comparison of the free colored statistics between the two sections, the whole amount of emigration from the South appears as a double difference. It is subtractive on one side of the equation, and additive on the other.

Bearing these statements in mind, it appears from the above quoted statistics, that comparatively but few slaves have *ever* been emancipated at the North; that as between the New-England and the Southern States, the Southern have been the principal scene of emancipation; that notwithstanding the emigration from the South, the South has within the fifty years, between 1790 and 1840, doubled the number of her free blacks nearly six times; whereas the New-England States have not, in the same interval, doubled theirs once; and that moreover, during the period of prospective and post-natal emancipation at the North, ten slaves received their freedom at the South to one at the North.*

The decrease of emancipation at the South, between the first and the last decade of the above table—the falling off from 85 to 18 per cent. in the sources both of emancipation and natural multiplication taken together,—is decisive as to the practical increase at the South of the difficulties in the way of setting the slaves free. In their own mute style, these figures proclaim with unutterable eloquence, the injury and the wrong which fanatics, styling themselves the friends of the black man, have inflicted upon his race. With a free colored population of 27,983 in 1790, the South in the next ten years, by natural increase and emancipation, swelled this class by 23,940. The natural increase due the basis of 1830 (156,633) is nearly six times that due the basis of 1790 (27,983.) It ought to be, certainly—yet what do we see in the above figures? Why, that with the large basis of 1830, the decennial increase is but 27,133—only 3,193 more from 156,000 in 1830, than from 27,000 in 1790! Why, the free colored race must have fallen off wonderfully in its powers to "increase and multiply," or emancipation must have become much less in vogue among Southern people now than formerly.

Not only do these figures and facts, but the statute books also, show that the practical difficulties of emancipation have been greatly increased at the South. We see that from 1790, the increase of the free colored population at the South has fallen off, from the average annual rate of 8.5 to less than 2 per cent. More properly speaking, the ratio in which it has fallen off is as 8.5 to 1.8.

The South could not, if she would, banish her slaves and tell the world that that is emancipation; for she has no place of banishment ts send them to.

In the spirit of truth and candor, we do not think we venture too far when we assert it as a probability, that neither New-England nor the Middle States would have passed when they did the emancipation acts which sent their slaves into banishment, if they had not had the South or some other place to send them off to.

Now suppose that Maryland and Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee and Missouri, should wish to pass post-natal free laws, or a law of the so-called emancipation: can it be imagined that the remaining slave states would permit the slaves from those states to be crowded down upon them—to be brought there and sold as those of the New-England States were, when they were emancipated?

We know the free states would not permit the liberated slaves to come over, in any considerable numbers, into their borders. The new constitution of Indiana, so far as she is concerned, is conclusive upon that point.

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* In drawing this comparison, allowance should be made for the emigration of free blacks from New-England to Canada, and the North Western States, and also for the circumstances that after the free laws went into effect in the New-England States, there remained no more slaves to emancipate. But making allowance for all this, and arguing from the supposition that the natural increase of free persons of color is the same North as South, we shall still be left with the conclusion that the South has emancipated many more slaves than the North ever did, considering the matter rateably.

It is not to be supposed that the states in question will ever emancipate, if the liberated slaves are to stay where they are. Emancipation and citizenship both, to the slaves of the Southern States, is rather too much to expect from any one of them.

There are in the United States at this time about three millions of slaves owned by less than three millions of people. We shall not use too large a figure if we set down the average value of each slave at $400, or in the aggregate at twelve hundred millions of dollars. Total emancipation—it makes no odds how gradual—even if commenced now, would cost these three millions of American citizens—or, in a large sense, the people of the fifteen slave states, 1200 millions of dollars. Did ever any people incur such a tax? History affords no example of any. The slave population increases at the rate of 2½ per cent. per annum. Therefore, unless an outlet be found for the slave population—as slaves—the difficulties of emancipation in these United States, so far from decreasing with time, will become greater and greater, and that, too, they are doing at a tremendous rate, and with a frightful ratio, as year after year rolls round.

The fact must be obvious to the far-reaching minds of our statesmen, that unless some means of relief be devised, some channel afforded, by which the South can, when the time comes, get rid of the excess of her slave population, that she will be ultimately found, with regard to this institution, in the predicament of the man with the wolf by the ears—too dangerous to hold on any longer, and equally dangerous to let go.

To our mind, the event is as certain to happen as any event is which depends on the contingencies of the future, viz.: that unless means be devised for gradually relieving the slave states from the undue pressure of this class upon them—unless some way be opened by which they may be rid of their surplus black population,—the time will come—it may not be in the next nor in the succeeding generation—but, sooner or later, come it will, and come it must—when the two races will join in the death struggle for the mastery.

The valley of the Amazon is the way; in this view, it is the safety-valve of the Union. It is slave territory and a wilderness. One among the many results of this line of steamers, is the entire suppression of the African slave trade with Brazil, by a substitution therefor of a slave emigration from the United States. At least, so t appears to us.

The negroes from the Middle* and the New-England states, who, under the emancipation laws of those states, were forced into the markets of Va. and other southern states, did not thereby become more of slaves than they were before. There was a transfer of the place of servitude—that was all. Not a slave the more was made. But he that was taken from the North to the South remained in the country.

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* Calling Middle States,—New-York, New-Jersey, and Pennsylvania, only.

Suppose he had been sent to South America instead of to South Carolina, it would have still been the same to him; but how different to the country! There would in that case have been a transfer of the place of servitude, as before; but, according to the anti-slavery tenets of fanaticism, a curse the less would have remained upon the country.

This subject opens to the imagination a vista; in it the valley of the Amazon is seen as the safety-valve of the South, and this line of steamers as a strand, at least, in the cord which is to lift that valve whenever the pressure of this institution, be that when it may, shall become too powerful upon the machinery of our great Ship of State.

As in the breaking away of the storm, a streak of clear sky is welcomed by the mariner whose ship has been endangered by the elements, so this Amazonian vista is to us. It is the first and the only streak of light to our mind's eye, that the future throws upon the final question of slavery in this country.

Every steamship has her safety-valve; but every steamship is not obliged to use it always. It is there in case of necessity. So with the valley of the Amazon: we need not go there ourselves, nor send our slaves there immediately; but it is well to have the ability to go or to send, in case it may become expedient so to do.

This line of steamers, by the commercial ties which it will establish, by the business relations which it will beget, by the frequent intercourse which it will bring about between the valley of the Amazon and the Southern States, will accomplish all these great results, and more, too.

The subject is immense—its magnitude oppresses us. We commend it to the serious consideration of our merchants and statesmen; and in so doing, we venture, though with diffidence, to ask the question: will not one or more of the states most concerned in the successful issue of the enterprise, give it encouragement?

ART. III.—THE STATE OF ALABAMA.*

EARLY BRITISH AND AMERICAN HISTORY OF ALABAMA—CREEK WARS OF GENERAL JACKSON—TERRITORIAL AND STATE GOVERNMENT, ETC.

Having treated in sufficient detail of the aboriginal and early French history of Alabama, we pass to that period which opens the second volume of Mr. Pickett, and which marks the advent of the British power in the state.

At the conclusion of the long and bloody wars in Europe, and with the adoption of the pacification of Paris in 1763, France had divested herself of her whole North American interests. The western bank of the Mississippi, from its mouth to its source, but including the island of New-Orleans on the other bank, passed into the hands of Spain; whilst Great Britain succeeded to Canada, all of the territories east of the Mississippi as far south as the Bayou Iberville, together with Florida. The whole of Alabama and Mississippi, and that portion of Louisiana north of a line drawn through the Bayou Iberville—the Amite, Lakes Maurepas and Ponchartrain to the sea, and east of the Mississippi River, became thus a British possession, known until 1781 as West Florida and the province of Illinois. Alabama was divided on the parallel of 32° 28′ between West Florida and Illinois, in nearly equal divisions; and Montgomery and Wetumpka, which are but fifteen miles apart, were in different jurisdictions. The Florida portion only was then in European occupation, having Pensacola as its seat of government.

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* History of Alabama, and incidentally of Mississippi and Georgia, by A. J. Pickett, 2 vols. Charleston, 1851.

George Johnson, the first English Governor, organized the government, garrisoned the fort at Mobile and that of Toulouse up the Coosa; but the government was purely military. Its earliest history was marked by great sufferings among the English inhabitants of Mobile, who died in great numbers from habits of intemperance, exposure, and a contagious disease introduced by one of the regiments. From these disasters the French residents were spared. They lived a regular and abstemious life—refrained from spirituous liquors in summer, confined themselves to spring water, and for a large part spent the sickly months upon their plantations on the Tensaw and Mobile rivers, which were very healthy. Many of them lived to a great old age. The Chevalier de Lucere had a plantation on the first island below the confluence of the Tombigby and the Alabama. Other islands on the Tensaw and Mobile were cultivated by the French and English, who spent their summers among the hills, and engaged in the product of tar. Lower down than Lucere's plantation, were those of Campbell, Stewart, Andry, McGillivray, Favre, Chastang, Strother and Narbone. Five miles lower still was the site of an old French fort, and eleven miles lower, the plantation of Mr. Lezars, which had once belonged to the French Intendant of Mobile.

The exports of Mobile in 1772 were indigo, raw hides, corn, fine cattle, tallow, rice, pitch, bear's oil, tar, tobacco, squared timber, indigo seed, myrtle wax, cedar posts and planks, salted wild beef, pecan nuts, cypress and pine boards, plank of various woods, shingles, dried salt fish, scantling, sassafras, canes, staves and heading, hoops, oranges, and peltry. Cotton was cultivated in small quantities; and a machine in use for separating it from the seed, is thus described by Capt. Roman, (one of them was used by Mr. Crebs, the alleged inventor, who suspended canvass bags between pine trees, and packed in his cotton by treading down to the extent of 300 pounds.)

"It is a strong frame of four studs, each about four feet high, and joined above and below by strong transverse pieces. Across this are placed two round well-polished spindles, having a small groove through their whole length, and by means of treadles are put in opposite motions. The workman sits behind the frame, with a thin board before him, upon which is placed the cotton, thinly spread, which the rollers receive. The lint goes through the rollers, and the seed falls down in a separate pile. The French population have much improved upon this plan, by a large wheel, which turns two of these mills with so much velocity, that seventy pounds of clean cotton can be made every day."

Fearful gales swept over West Florida, inundating Mobile, and running vessels up into the town. The houses of Mr. Crebs' plantation on the Pascagoula were riddled, trees everywhere prostrated, herds scattered, crops ruined. The sea water was driven up the bays and rivers, whilst the coast and shipping suffered frightfully. The Chandelier island came near being entirely swept away; and what was remarkable, the mulberries all produced a second crop of leaves, budded, blossomed, and bore ripe fruit within four weeks after the gales had subsided.

In the summer of 1777, the botanist, Bartram, made an excursion through Alabama. He describes Mobile as extending back half a mile from the river, with a few good buildings, occupied by the French, or emigrants from England, Scotland, Ireland, and the North American Colonies. Swansan and McGillivray conducted the Indian trade, having commodious storehouses. The French buildings were of brick, one story, square, often very large, and including courts within. The common people lived in cypress frames, filled in with plaster. Mr. Farmer resided near the present Stockton, his extensive plantations lying up and down the Tensaw—surrounded by other thriving plantations, and the ruins of many which the French had abandoned on the change of government. In his journeyings, Bartram met a party of Georgians, nine or ten in number, including women and children, who after passing through the great hardships of the wilderness, are believed to have been the first Anglo-American inhabitants of Baldwin county.

"Returning to Mobile, the botanist presently embarked in a trading vessel, manned by three negroes, and set sail for Pearl River. Passing along the western coast, and reaching the mouth of Dog River, they there landed, and entered the woods for recreation. Here he saw the remains of the old Fort St. Louis de la Mobile, with a few pieces of iron cannon, and also vast iron kettles for boiling tar into pitch. Pursuing his voyage, he again came to the shore, a few miles beyond where resided a Frenchman eighty years of age; he was active, strong and muscular; his mother, who was present, and who appeared to be brisk and cheerful, was one hundred and five years of age. Fifty years previous to this she had landed in Mobile from la belle France."

The effects of the American revolution began now to be felt throughout the possessions of Louisiana and of Florida; and Mr. Pickett devotes nearly one whole chapter to the biography and adventures of the family of the McGillivrays, who, in conjunction with the Indians, were severely felt in their sanguinary attacks upon the whigs of Georgia. The chapter is in the most finished style of the author, and is evidently his *chef d'œuvre*. A romantic interest attaches to the whole history of the McGillivrays. Lochlan, the father, a Scotch boy of 16, scampered off from wealthy parents at home and sought the Western World. Without money and scarcely clothes, he landed at Charleston, found himself among the Indian traders who quartered in the suburbs, and soon made one in their adventures. For his services he received *a jack knife*, which being converted into skins to be sold at Charleston, constituted the basis of his afterwards extensive fortune. He became in the event one of the boldest and most successful traders, extending his commerce to the very neighborhood of Fort Toulouse. Here he had the address to captivate the heart of a beautiful andaristocratic Indian girl, of the tribe of the Wind—Sehoy Marchand, the daughter of a former French captain at Fort Toulouse. Pickett describes her as a second Pocahontas, though we have always received with grains of distrust these descriptions of Indian beauties, prosy as the remark may be. Of the marriage at a trading-house, near Wetumpka, on the Coosa, sprung Alexander McGillivray, and the tradition goes, that his mother, in pregnancy, dreamed of piles of manuscripts, books, papers, &c., as mothers ever will dream, and fathers, too, pending an event like this. The fortunes of the father prospered; he had plantations and negroes in Georgia, large stores in Savannah and Augusta, &c. When the boy Alexander had reached his fourteenth year, he was placed at school in Charleston, and subsequently in a counting-house at Savannah. Commerce pleased him not so much as books, and he forthwith became a hard and diligent student. But even this could not satisfy the wants of a spirit, which, true to the instincts of its mother race, yearned after the sports and life of the *wilderness*. Civilization had lost all its charms. Alexander McGillivray was again among the Creeks, and by virtue of his noble descent, a chief and a leader. He presided at the national council upon the Chattahoochee, received the rank of colonel from the British of Florida, and thenceforward devoted himself to the royal cause. In 1778, he corresponded extensively with the government of Florida and the province of Georgia, and engaged in the task of confederating the Indians against the colonial cause, acting in concert with many royalists who had fled from the colonies, sometimes leading expeditions in person, but generally relying upon Le Clerk Milfort, a bold and daring adventurer, who subsequently published a work, "*Sejour dans la Nation Creek*," from which, and from contemporaneous manuscripts and conversations with the nephew and niece of McGillivray, Mr. Pickett obtains his information.

Before dismissing the McGillivray chapter, we cannot but condemn the introduction of such a passage as the following into it. In writing a grave history, Mr. Pickett should throw aside the prejudices of the politician, and not treat of great national topics, like the French, English, and Spanish wars, as if in the editorial of a daily, or at a stump gathering. History should speak in the language of dignity, having no country, no friends, and no party! We give the passage:

> "This brought about a collision with John Bull. Spain interposed her friendly efforts to effect a reconciliation, but the *canine* propensities of England was aroused, and that *ungenerous* government declared war against Spain as well as France," &c.

Now, it so happens, by the way, that these very wars which Mr. Pickett refers to in such terms of ignominy, were advocated by the great and pure Earl of Chatham, who came down from his bed to urge them, and who died almost in the very effort of speaking these memorable words: "Shall a people, so lately the terror of the world, now fall prostrate before the House of Bourbon? It is impossible. In God's name, if it is absolutely necessary to declare either for peace or for war, and if peace cannot be preserved with honor, why is not war commenced without hesitation? I am not, I must confess, informed of the resources of this kingdom, but I trust it has still sufficient to maintain its just rights. Any state, my lord, is better than despair. Let us, indeed, make one effort, and if we must fall, let us fall like men."

The origin of the name of Murder Creek, in the County of Conecuh, is explained by Mr. Pickett. Kirkland, an English royalist, who had been on a visit to McGillivray, was, upon his return, murdered by a band of Indians. One of them was arrested by Milford, under the orders of McGillivray, and carried back to the bloody spot, where he was executed. The place, ever since has been known as *Murder Creek.*

Chapter xxi. treats of the deep intrigues of McGillivray, in which the author proves that wily chieftain to have been the very Talleyrand of the western wilds. He baffled all negotiations, and generally succeeded in putting them in the wrong. Caressed by the Spaniards in Florida and Louisiana, obeyed by his own people as well as by many of the Cherokees and the Choctaws, and supplicated by the Federal Congress and Washington it was not remarkable he became haughty and arbitrary. President Washington having at last succeeded in inducing him to visit the seat of government, made with him and other chiefs a permanent treaty of peace, and received a surrender of the Oconee lands claimed by Georgia, about which so much blood had been shed, and so much negotiation exhausted. By a secret treaty, at the same time, McGillivray was given the rank of brigadier general, and the pay, as Creek agent, of $1,200 per annum. Mr. Pickett is mistaken when he speaks of the terms of this secret treaty being *now* for the first time made public. We were long ago familiar with them.*

The treaty of peace with Great Britain had fixed the southern boundary of the United States from a point on the Mississippi in the 31st parallel of latitude; thus giving to the Americans about two degrees of what was known as West Florida, then in the possession of the Spaniards, by conquest. The Spaniards refused to deliver this territory, having again come into possession of the Floridas by the same general treaty of peace, and Mr. Pickett justifies them upon the ground that the British had no right to cede territory which was not in their possession. The negotiations were conducted at Madrid by Mr. Jay and Guardoqui. It is sufficient to say, in reply to Mr. Pickett's argument, that when originally in the hands of Spain, the northern limits of Florida were the 31°—they were so considered by the British, who organized a government on that basis, but afterwards saw fit to enlarge it by annexing territory acquired in the French grant of Canada. Now, when by the 8th article of the British and Spanish treaty, it was stipulated that Spain should surrender to Great Britain all the territories conquered by her except Florida, is not the construction a fair one that the Florida referred to, *was that which had previously existed in the hands of Spain, and which never extended further north than the 31st degree of latitude*. The secretary of the French minister, Vergennes, in his correspondence with Mr. Jay, admitted that Spain held nothing beyond this parallel. He says: "She cannot pass beyond Natchez towards the 31st degree parallel of latitude—her rights are therefore confined to this degree—what is beyond is either independent or belonging to England," (i. e., to the United States under England.)

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* See McGillivray, p. 143.

The State of Georgia considering its title now perfect to all of the lands running westward from her limits to the Mississippi, proceeded to grant them out to companies for the purposes of settlement, on a consideration being paid into her coffers. There were two sets of these grants known as the "Yazoo grants," both of which have acquired a great celebrity in history.

By the first, five millions of acres in Mississippi were granted to the South Carolina Yazoo Company; seven millions to the Virginia Yazoo Company; three and a half millions in Alabama to the Tennessee Company: the first paying $60,000, the second, $93,000, and the third, $46,000. The South Carolina and Tennessee companies, in defiance of the opposition of the federal government, attempted to colonize these grants: but they were finally defeated by that opposition, combined with that of the Indians and the Spaniards who held out in their claim of sovereignty over the country. These companies having failed, however, to meet the instalments upon their purchases, the acts were subsequently rescinded by Georgia.

Several years afterwards, other and more considerable grants were made by Georgia, to wit:

For the sum of $250,000, to James Gunn and others, called the Georgia Company, a tract embracing parts of many of the present wealthiest counties of Alabama and Mississippi, eighteen in Alabama, and twenty-one in Mississippi.

For $150,000, to the Georgia Mississippi Company, a tract embracing parts or the whole of two or three of the present counties of Alabama, and thirty-one counties of Mississippi.

For $35,000, to Wade Hampton *et al.* of the Upper Mississippi Company, that part of Mississippi now embraced in the counties of De Soto, Marshall, Tippah, Tishimingo, and part of Tunica.

For $60,000, to the Tennessee Company, a tract in North Alabama, embracing most of the present counties of Lauderdale, Limestone, Madison, Jackson, De Kalb, Cherokee, Marshall, Morgan, Lawrence, Franklin, Marion, Walker and Blount.

This second Yazoo sale was followed by a storm throughout the country. It was denounced in the message of General Washington, and Congress instructed the attorney general to investigate the titles of Georgia to the territory; but the legislature of that state being convened again, and all of the adherents and supporters of the grants having been defeated before the people upon the allegation of bribery and corruption in the terms of the sales, they were declared null and void, and even the papers upon which they were written consumed by fire, drawn direct, as it were, from heaven, through a sun-glass!

When this matter came before Congress upon an appeal from the grantees, the celebrated John Randolph crowned himself with imperishable fame by his bold and vigorous assaults upon all of the parties connected with it, constituting himself, for a period of ten years, the very scourge of these men. "No, sir," said he, on one occasion, "the orgies of Yazoo speculation are not to be opened to public view. None but the initiated are to behold the monstrous sacrifice of the best interests of the nation on the altars of corruption. When this abomination is to be practised, we go into conclave," etc.

The following passage from Garland's Life of Randolph, vol. i., p. 67, gives many other interesting particulars in regard to the proceedings upon the Yazoo grants:

> "On the 7th day of February, 1795, the Legislature of Georgia passed an act authorizing the sale of four tracts of land therein described, and containing a greater part of the country west of the Alabama River, called the Georgia, the Georgia-Mississippi, the Upper-Mississippi, and the Tennesseean Companies, for which they were to pay $500,000. The land contained within the boundaries of the several companies was estimated at forty millions of acres. The sale of a country so extensive, for a sum so far below its value, excited immediate and universal indignation throughout the State of Georgia. The motives of the legislature were questioned and examined. Then corruption was established upon the most indisputable evidence. Upwards of sixty-four depositions were taken, that developed a scene of villany and swindling unparalleled in the history of any country. On comparing a list of the names of the companies with the names of the persons who voted for the land, it appeared that all of the members of the Senate and House of Representatives of Georgia, who voted in favor of the law, were, with one single exception, interested in, and parties to the purchase. Every member who voted for the law received either money or land for his vote. The guardians of the rights of the people united with swindlers, defrauded their constituents, sold their votes, betrayed the delegated trust reposed in them, and basely divided among themselves the lands of the people of Georgia. This flagrant abuse of power—this enormous act of corruption, was viewed with abhorrence by every honest man. The press throughout the country burst out in a blaze of indignation. All the grand juries of the state, except in two counties where there were corrupt majorities of the Yazoo men, presented this law as a public robbery, and a deliberate fraud. The convention which met in the month of May, 1795, at Louisville, was crowded with petitions from every part of the state, which, by an order of the convention, was referred to the succeeding legislature. The legislature was elected solely with reference to that question. Repeal or no Repeal! Yazoo or anti-Yazoo! was the only subject canvassed before the people. On the 30th of January, 1796, an act was passed with only three dissenting voices, declaring the usurped act of February, 1795, void, and expunging the same from the public records. At a subsequent meeting, this expunging act was engrafted on the constitution, and made a fundamental law of the land."—*Garland's Randolph*, vol. i., p. 67.

At this period, 1792, Alabama was almost entirely in the occupation of the natives. There was a garrison of Spanish troops at Mobile, and also at St. Stephen's on the Tombigbee, with trading posts upon the Oconee, and on other points at the south and west. A settlement of whigs was located on the Tensaw, to which point several Moungers and others from Georgia directed their journeyings, and found already there the Halls, Byrnes, Mims, Kilkreas, Easlies, Linders, etc. Below McIntosh's Bluff, they found the Bates, Lawrences, and Powells; whilst above upon the Tombigbee were the Danbys, Johnsons, McGrews, Hockets, Freelands, Talleys and Bakers; with the Moungers were Col. Kimbil Barnet, Sheffield and Hannon. The representatives of many of these may still be found in Alabama. In addition, there lived upon Little River, between the counties of Monroe and Baldwin, intelligent and wealthy families of mixed white and Indian blood; among whom was a sister of McGillivray, a maiden of fair exterior, won in matrimony afterwards by a Huguenot from South Carolina, Benjamin Durant. There was something romantic in the incidents of this alliance. Durant had carried away the palm in his feats of strength, when contesting with the young men of Charleston, and came all the way into the Creek Nation in search of one whom the traders represented as his superior. To meet, was to vanquish him, after a vigorous struggle, of which the dark maid of the Coosa was a witness. Women who love power and *masculine* might, whether in courts or in forests, never dispute the claims of youths like Durant, but are carried captive at once. Well said the author of "Yeast," that strange *melange*—"Ay, be as manichean sentimental as you will, fair ladies, physical prowess, that Eden right of manhood, is sure to tell upon your hearts." "Durant's Bend," on the Alabama, still preserves his memory, and Lachlan Durant, the son, is a resident of Baldwin County even at this day; and it is recorded by Mr. Pickett, of the mother, that when McGillivray was negotiating his treaty at New-York, the Creeks meditated an attack upon the white settlements, which she defeated by a long ride of four days to the camp of the chiefs, where she threatened them with the vengeance of her brother. This was only two weeks prior to her giving birth to twins. In Montgomery County there lived a white woman, the widow of a soldier, who afterwards took up with a chief, and in time acquired a great deal of wealth. She was long known among the traders, etc., as Milly. A little girl who lived with her, and who had been ransomed by her from the Indians, Tenpey Ellis, now an old lady in Pike, Mrs. Frizell, has been seen and conversed with by Mr. Pickett. Two miles east of Lone Creek was located the trading house of Abram Mordecai, a very remarkable character, whose reminiscences of early Alabama history are most interesting.

Another trader named Russell lived here; while at Mount Meigs were two tories, Love and Dargan, a Dutchman and a horse thief, generally with Indian wives. Charles Weatherford had a house below the confluence of the Coosa and the Tallapoosa, and laid out in the neighborhood one of the earliest race-courses. A not distant neighbor was Savaner Jack, a wretch whose hand had often been steeped in the blood of the frontier settlers.

A sketch of the early commerce of Alabama will interest our read ers. Skins, beeswax, hickory-nut oil, snake-root, medicinal barks, etc., were transported to Augusta and Pensacola on pack horses, and to Mobile and New-Orleans in large canoes. The horses were, generally, the small ones of the wilderness, capable of great endurance. The load was adjusted upon a peculiar saddle, and consisted of three bundles, of sixty pounds each. Two of them were suspended so as to come down the sides of the pony, while the third was laid crosswise on the top. Taffai, a mean rum, was carried in kegs. A pack horseman drove ten ponies in a lead, urging them on with sticks and imprecations. At night, the packs were taken off, piled together, and covered with skins, and the horses belled, and set free to graze. The Indians seldom disturbed these caravans, which pursued their way through a thousand obstacles, swimming creeks, or crossing upon rafts; but if they reached a stream having large cane on its banks, (we quote from Mr. Pickett):—

> "These were presently cut, ten feet long, and tied up into bundles about three feet in circumference, which were placed in the water. Across these others were laid, which formed an admirable raft, capable of sustaining great weight. Logs were also often employed in the construction of rafts. Guided by long grape vines, they were generally dragged safely across, where the wet ponies stood ready to receive their packs again. Then all hands drank taffai, and journeyed on with light hearts and laughing faces. The average travel was twenty-five miles a day.
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> "The route from Pensacola was a well-beaten path, leading up the country, and across the fatal Murder Creek, and thence to within a few miles of Catoma, whence it diverged into several small trails, one of which led to Tookahatcha, along the route of the old Federal Road, the other to Montgomery and Wetumpka, by the Red Warrior's Bluff, now Grey's Ferry, upon the Tallapoosa; this trail continued to the Tennessee river."

The United States having purchased the rights of Georgia in the western wilds, established the Mississippi territory, which extended from the Chattahoochee to the Mississippi, and from the 31° to 32° 28 latitude, appointing Winthrop Sargent governor. Fort Stoddard was established near the confluence of the Alabama and the Tombigbee, and the County of Washington laid out, embracing a space out of which twenty counties in Alabama and twelve in Mississippi have been subsequently carved. Claiborne succeeded as governor; but many of the distant settlers upon the Tensaw remained without laws, and were in the habit of intermarrying, by "pairing off," as it was called—a convenient way of whipping the devil around the stump;—but the condition always was to have *honest marriage* when the preachers or the magistrates came that way. Poor people, what better could they do? Pickett, who seems to relish a good joke, tells us of one of these hard-pressed couples, who repaired to the house of a rather pompous old German, a commandant under Uncle Sam, and demanded nuptials, the parents being in hot chase. The old captain threw down his pipe, and swore that was a thing not to be found in any of the military books. He yielded at last to entreaties, after this fashion—"I, Captain Shoumberg, of the 2d regiment of the U. S. Army, and commandant of Fort Stoddart, do pronounce you man and wife. Go home—behave yourselves—multiply and replenish the Tensaw country!" The happy pair were pronounced by the whole settlement the *best* married people they had known in a long time. A trading-house was located at St. Stephens. The Brothers Pierce settled upon Lake Tensaw, one as a weaver, and the other as the pioneer American schoolmaster. In the neighborhood were the descendants of McGillivray, the Taits, Weatherfords, and Durants, the Linders, the Mims, etc. The Pierces established also one of the first cotton gins in that part of the country, as also did Abram Mordecai.

> "Mordecai was a queer fellow. He traded extensively with the Indians, exchanging his goods for pink-root, hickory-nut oil, and peltries of all kinds. These he carried to New-Orleans and Mobile in boats, and to Pensacola and Augusta on pack horses. The hickory-nut oil was a luxury with French and Spanish epicures. It was manufactured by the Indians in a simple manner—by boiling the cracked nuts in water, and skimming off the oil as it floated on the surface. Mordecai bought cotton of the Indians in small quantities, ginning it, and carrying it to Augusta on pack horses, in bags much smaller than those of the present day. He was a dark-eyed Jew, and amorous in his disposition. Tourculla, (Capt. Isaacs,) the Chief of the Coosawdas, hearing of his intrigues with a married squaw, approached his house with twelve warriors, knocked him down, thrashed him with poles until he lay insensible, cut off one of his ears, and left him to the care of his wife. They also broke up his boat, and burned down his gin-house. A pretty squaw was the cause of the destruction of the first cotton gin in Alabama."

Louisiana having been ceded by Spain to France, and re-ceded to the United States, a great controversy arose as to whether it included the country south of the 31°, and between the Mississippi and Pearl river, known as the *Baton Rouge District*, and that south of the same parallel, between the Pearl and the Perdido, known as the *Mobile District*. The Spaniards claimed these as West Florida, and only gave up after long struggles and negotiations. We have frequently spoken of these in our pages.

Mr. Pickett's XXIX. Chapter is a deeply-interesting and graphic one, and recounts the adventures of Aaron Burr, and of his being taken captive upon the soil of Alabama by the young lieutenant, afterwards General Gaines. We have already published the most of this chapter, except the summing up of Burr's character, which we now give; and by which it will be seen that the author has been altogether converted, as we ourselves for the most part were, too, by the interesting biography of M. L. Davis.

> "It was not considered treason when President Jackson allowed hundreds of the people of the Southwest to be shipped from Mobile and New-Orleans with arms in their hands, who presently landed upon the coast of Texas, and took that country from the Spaniards; but for similar designs, Aaron Burr was hunted down, thrown into prison, and tried for high treason. The impartial reader must arrive at the conclusion, that the faults of Burr, of a political and public capacity, were not such as ought really to have placed that odium upon him which still attaches to his name. One of the great secrets of his political misfortunes lay in the prejudice and

malevolence of politicians and fanatics. Somebody heard General Washington say, that "Burr was a dangerous man:" thereupon the world set him down as a "dangerous man." He killed Hamilton in a duel, because Hamilton abused him: thereupon the world said he was a "murderer." He was a formidable rival of Jefferson in the contest for the presidency: thereupon a majority of the republican party said he was a political scoundrel. He has always opposed the federal party: thereupon the federal party hated him with exceeding bitterness. A blundering, extravagant man, named Herman Blennerhassett, sought Burr while he was in the West, eagerly enlisted in his schemes, and invited him to his house: thereupon Wm. Wirt said, in his prosecuting speech, that "Burr was the serpent who entered the garden of Eden."

The cultivation of indigo in Alabama beginning to be abandoned for that of cotton, the receipts of the gin-holders came to be held a legal tender, and passed as bills of exchange. The Alabamians having to pay a double duty, viz.: at Fort Stoddard to the United States, and at Mobile to the Spaniards, labored under great disadvantages. The neighborhood of Huntsville began to be settled by wealthy emigrants. Mr. Gaines, a brother of the general, was government agent for the Indians at St. Stephen's. Upon the backs of horses, the merchandise was carried from Colbert's Ferry to the Tombigbee, and then floated down to the storehouses at St. Stephen's, to avoid the exactions of the Spaniards at Mobile. So keenly did the people feel these exactions, that an expedition was fitted out, under Kemper and others, to drive them out of the country. It proved a miserable failure, and many of the parties were sent to Havana to be immured for a long time in the Moro castle. At Baton Rouge the Americans were successful in repulsing the Spaniards.

The career of Tecumseh occupies a chapter of Colonel Pickett. That great chieftain made the tour of the South for the purpose of forming a general league of the Indians against the whites, under British instigation. He appeared at Autauga and Coosawda, and, after many delays, his great war speech was made at the council of the warriors. Being opposed by the "Big Warrior," he shook his finger in his face, earnestly repeating, "Tustinugee Thlucco, your blood is white; I will go to Detroit—when I get there, I will stamp my foot upon the ground, and shake down every house in Tookabatcha." The conclusion of this fine incident we receive with some grains of allowance, knowing the love of the marvellous which exists everywhere. It was so unlikely that an earthquake should actually have occurred to save the reputation of Tecumseh! though the author says the fact is known to the old settlers. "One day a mighty rumbling was heard in the earth, the houses of Tookabatcha reeled and tottered, and reeled again. The people ran out vociferating, 'Tecumseh has got to Detroit; we feel the shake of his foot.'" *Credat, etc.*

The United States, being now at war with Great Britain, did not deem the occupation of Mobile by so nerveless a power as Spain longer to be consonant with safety to our interest, and by one of those bold strokes of policy, known to nations in trying emergencies, dispatched General Wilkinson from New-Orleans, by sea, to take possession of the country, which he did without striking a blow.

After this event, there followed a series of terrible and bloody Indian wars upon the soil of Alabama. The first of these is known as that of Burnt Corn, and is illustrated in the work before us with a very beautiful plate, entitled "The War in South Alabama in 1813 and 1814." Col. Callis, who commanded in this expedition, had his troops cut to pieces and scattered, the rout being in great disorder. At Fort Mimms, soon after, was enacted one of those bloody tragedies which often marked the early life of the backwoods. The author elaborates upon it with great minuteness, and has written perhaps the only full account the world has ever had of the affair, deriving his information from the manuscripts of Gov. Claiborne and of Dr. Thomas Holmes, of Baldwin county, who was one of the few survivors of the terrible day, and who took notes of it not long after for the purpose of refreshing his memory. He conversed with Jesse Steadham and Lieut. Random, who also escaped. We never read a more thrilling narrative from beginning to end, or one which would have befitted more the pen of the author of "Wyoming." Out of over five hundred souls, soldiers, officers, negroes, etc., none escaped except a few half breeds and negroes, and some ten or fifteen others. The disaster was attributed to the fatal and mad security in which the commandant, Beasley, reposed, to which, however, he was one of the first victims. Fort Mimms was situated on Lake Tensaw, not far below the mouth of the Tombigbee. Alarmed by these movements, the settlers began the construction of breastworks on every side. Fort Hawn, at Gallet's Bluff, contained 390 souls; Mount Vernon, where two forts existed, was densely packed; Rankin's fort contained five hundred and thirty; and families were flocking to Fort Charlotte, at Mobile.

Gen. Jackson, who had joined Gen. Coffee, began now to display against the Creeks those extraordinary qualities as a soldier which have placed him upon a par with the Marlboroughs and Wellingtons of history. He directed Coffee towards Tallasehatchee, where the Indians were congregated in great strength, but where, after a short and terrible action, one hundred and eighty-six were left upon the field, and eighty-four women and children made prisoners: only five Americans were killed and eighteen wounded. Jackson himself forded the Coosa at midnight, and with 1800 troops surrounded the enemy at Talladega. The Indians fought with great desperation, and over 290 bodies were left upon the field, whilst the Americans had 15 killed and 85 wounded. The battle field of Talladega is now embraced within the limits of the beautiful town of that name, which has a population of nearly 2,000. General Floyd soon after met the Indians in the vicinity of the Tallapoosa, carrying great destruction among them, burning their towns, and leaving two hundred upon the field, including the kings of Tallassee and Autose. Four hundred houses were destroyed, many of fine Indian architecture.

The canoe fight, on the Alabama, in which Jere Anstill and James Smith displayed the prowess and the chivalry of the heroic ages, though established on incontrovertible evidence, borders almost upon the marvellous. Eight athletic and stalwart Indians were crushed in this most unequal and extraordinary contest, whilst one only of three dauntless Americans received any injury, and that but slight. The canoes interlocked after the fashion of the ancient prows, and that of the Indians after the fight presented a sickening picture of mingled blood and brains and grim carcases. Anstill is still a respectable resident of Mobile, being a South Carolinian by birth. Dale, who was called "Big Sam" by the Indians, was a Virginian, and weighed nearly two hundred pounds, being over six feet in height. He died about ten years ago in Mississippi. In addition to this incident of the canoe fight, Col. Claiborne tells several others of him:

> "Some years before he was attacked by two warriors, who shouted their war-whoop as he was kneeling down to drink, and rushed upon him with their tomahawks. He knifed them both, and though bleeding from five wounds, he retraced their trail nine miles; crept stealthily to their camp, brained three sleeping warriors, and cut the thongs of a female prisoner who lay by their side. While in this act, however, a fourth sprang upon him from behind a log. Taken at such disadvantage, and exhausted by the loss of blood, he sank under the serpent-grasp of the savage, and a few moments would have closed the contest. At that instant, however, the woman drove a tomahawk deep into the head of the Indian, and thus preserved the life of her deliverer.
>
> "Some time ago, General Dale being in Mobile, was held to bail as *endorser* of a note. The debt was in the hands of a *stranger*. Accompanied by an officer, he sought the creditor and found him in the saloon of Collum's far-famed hotel. 'Sir, said the general, I have no money to pay this debt. The principal has property, make him pay it, or let me go home and work it out.' The Shylock hesitated. '*Very well*,' said the veteran, in tones that rang indignantly through the apartment, '*Very well, sir! Look at my scars! I will march to jail down Main street, and all Mobile shall witness the treatment of an old soldier!*' These simple words fell like electricity upon that high-toned people. In half an hour the brightest names of the city were on the bond, and before morning the debt was paid, and a full discharge handed to the general. I have seen the manly tears chasing down his cheek, as the aged warrior dwelt on these recollections of the generous citizens."

Econachaca, or Holy Ground, on the bluff to the eastern side of the Alabama River, just below the present Powell's ferry, was fortified in great strength by the Indians. Against this point Claiborne led the advance in person, and was received by Weatherford, who was in command of the Indians, with great gallantry. They soon, however, gave way, leaving thirty of their number dead upon the field. Weatherford, in his flight upon a spirited charger, made his famous leap into the river from a perpendicular bluff ten or fifteen feet deep. This Weatherford, shortly after the decisive battle of Horse Shoe, which we shall mention directly, appeared in the camp of General Jackson. The general rushed out, exclaiming—

> "How dare you, sir, to ride up to my camp, after killing the women and children at Fort Mimms!" Weatherford said, "General Jackson, I am not afraid of you. I fear no man, for I am a Creek warrior. I have nothing

to request in behalf of myself; you can kill me, if you desire. But I come to beg you to send for the women and children of the war party who are starving in the woods. Their fields and cribs have been destroyed by your people, who have driven them to the woods without an ear of corn. I hope that you will send out parties who will safely conduct them here, that they may be fed. I exerted myself in vain to prevent the massacre of the women and children at Fort Mimms. I am now done fighting. The Red Sticks are nearly all killed. If I could fight you any longer, I would most heartily do so. Send for the women and children. They never did you any harm. But kill me, if the white people want it done." At the conclusion of these words, many persons who had surrounded the marquee exclaimed, "kill him! kill him! kill him!" General Jackson commanded silence; and in an emphatic manner said, "*Any man who would kill as brave a man as this, would rob the dead.*"

After the battle of Emuckfau, near the creek of that name, in Tallapoosa county, Jackson, who was without provisions, and in force too weak for the emergencies, returned to Fort Strother. On his way, the Indians attacked him again at Enetachopoco, and although in these two battles one hundred and eighty-nine bodies of the Indians were counted on the field, the chieftains always maintained that they had "whipped Captain Jackson, and run him to the Coosa River." The respective forces of the parties are stated by Mr. Pickett: 767 whites, with two hundred friendly Indians, and 500 hostile Creeks, or "Red Sticks," as they were called. In view of this disparity of force and terrible courage of the Indians, the author finds occasion to comment:

"Brave natives of Alabama! to defend that soil where the Great Spirit gave you birth, you sacrificed your peaceful savage pursuits; you fought the invaders until more than half your warriors were slain! The remnant of your warlike race yet live in the distant Arkansas. You have been forced to quit one of the finest regions on earth, which is now occupied by Americans. Will *they*, in some dark hour when Alabama is invaded, defend this soil as bravely and as enduringly as you have done? Posterity may be able to reply."

General Jackson, with two thousand men, passed over the ridge which divides the Coosa and the Tallapoosa, and appeared suddenly before the enemy. We extract the particulars of the battle of Horse Shoe, which followed, and which may be said almost to have put an end to the war:

"Being desirous not to destroy this brave race, Jackson sent out a messenger towards them, who assured them of the clemency of the general, provided they would surrender. They answered by discharges of their guns and with shouts of defiance. The artillery was then effectually brought to bear upon them. The Americans then applied fire to their retreat, which soon forced them to fly, and as they ran, they were killed by American guns. It was late in the evening before the dreadful battle ended. The Red Sticks numbered about one thousand warriors, and out of that number five hundred and fifty-seven were found dead on the peninsular; and many were killed in the river by Coffee's troops while they were endeavoring to swim over. It may be stated that not more than two hundred survived. Some of them long afterwards suffered from the most grievous wounds. Manowa, one of the bravest chiefs that ever lived, was literally shot to pieces. He fought as long as he could. He saved himself by jumping into the water, where it was four feet deep. He held to a root, and thus kept himself beneath the waves, breathing through the long joint of a cane, one end of which he held in his mouth, and while one end came above the surface of the water. When night set in, the brave Manowa* rose from his watery bed and made his way to the forest, bleeding from many wounds. Many years after the war, we conversed with this chief, and learned from him the particulars of the remarkable escape. His face, limbs and body, at the time we conversed with him, were marked with the scars of many horrible wounds. Another chief was shot down among a number of slain warriors; and, with admirable presence of mind, saved his life by drawing over him the bodies of two of them, under which he lay till the darkness of night permitted him to leave the horrible place. The loss of the Americans was thirty-two killed, and ninety-nine wounded. The friendly Cherokees had eighteen killed, and thirty-six wounded. The tory Creeks had five killed, and eleven wounded. Among the killed were Major L. P. Montgomery, and Lieutenants Moulton and Somerville, who fell in the charge upon the breastworks."

The Creeks were now disposed to treat, and it was stipulated that a line should be drawn commencing upon the Coosa at the southern boundary of the Cherokee nation, and continue down that river to Wetumpka and thence eastwardly to Georgia. East and north of that line, containing 150,000 square miles, remained to the Indians; west and south of it was secured to the United States.

Apprehending an attack from the British upon Fort Bowyer, at Mobile Point, General Jackson re-garrisoned it under Major Lawrence, who soon after gallantly repulsed the English advance in two sloops of war and two brigs, destroying the Hermes, and killing 162 of the enemy, wounding 70 others. The American loss was but four killed, and four wounded.

The authorities of Pensacola having received the fugitive Indians on the ground of humanity, and allowed the British to occupy their forts of St. Michael and Barancas, in violation of neutral duties, and under pretext of a treaty between the English and the Indians, prior in date to the Spanish occupancy, General Jackson determined upon the occupation of Florida until Spanish troops should arrive in sufficient numbers to protect the neutrality of the territory. Three regiments of infantry, the militia of Tennessee, a battalion of volunteer dragoons and some friendly Indians, took up the march for Pensacola. Governor Manriquez having refused a friendly invitation to surrender, Laval, of the 3d regiment, a South Carolinian, was entrusted by Jackson to lead the "forlorn hope," in the desperate attempt to take a battery which commanded the only approach to the town. This fearful service was performed at the head of 120 men, among whom, and fighting in the ranks, on foot, was the brave Colonel Arthur P. Hayne, of South Carolina. Laval is now a resident of Charleston, and has held many high stations. There was an old story when we were a boy, that after he had received his dreadful wound at the gates of Pensacola, General Jackson came up, and being told by the surgeon that he must die—exclaimed with that ardor and *responsibility* which ever marked him, "*By God, he shan't die!*" As Colonel Pickett does not mention the story, we suppose it apocryphal. Manriquez soon after surrendered the town, and the British, after some show of resistance, evacuated the forts.

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* Known by the American settlers as "Old Manorwas."

The British having been defeated at New-Orleans, repaired to Fort Bowyer, near Mobile Point. Twenty-five vessels anchored within a distance of five miles. Thirteen ships approached within three miles, and 5,000 men landed and encamped. The Americans capitulated to a force twenty times their own. This was the last act of the war, as news of the treaty of peace had reached the territory.

Alabama began now its career of rapid progress. Settlers flocked to the Tombigbee, over which, and the Black Warrior, acquired from the Chickasaws, the jurisdiction of the Mississippi Territory was extended. Madison county, in six years, obtained a population of more than 10,000, from the most wealthy planters of the South. In 1816, a cession was received from the Indians of all the territory from the head waters of the Coosa westward to Cotton Gin Point, and to a line running from thence to the Caney Creek, on the Tennessee. The Americans continued to press into the territory, which reached that year 75,000 population, 46,000 of whom were in the counties of Pearl River, in the Tennessee valley, upon the Tombigbee and at Mobile. The following year the limits of the present state of Mississippi were defined and carved out from the territory to be admitted into the Federal Union.

The territorial government of Alabama was at the same time established with the counties of Mobile, Baldwin, Washington, Clarke, Madison, Limestone, and Lauderdale, and a seat of government at St. Stephen's. William Bibb was appointed governor, and the first legislature convened in 1818. The counties of Cotaco, Lawrence, Franklin, Limestone, Lauderdale, Blount, Tuscaloosa, Marengo, Shelby, Cahawba, Dallas, Marion and Conecuh, were laid off:

> "The flood-gates of Virginia, the two Carolinas, Tennessee, Kentucky and Georgia, were now hoisted, and the mighty streams of emigration poured through them, spreading over the whole territory of Alabama. The axe resounded from side to side, and from corner to corner. The stately and magnificent forests fell. Log-cabins sprung as if by magic into sight. Never before nor since has a country been so rapidly peopled."

Chapter XLI. contains an interesting account of the modern French colony in Alabama, or the Wine and Olive Company, obtained from the materials of A. B. Meek, Esq., George N. Stewart, Esq., who was agent of the Company, and Armand Pfister, of Montgomery, a descendant of one of the grantees. These Frenchmen, after the fall of Napoleon, from their attachment to his cause, were forced to abandon their country. Congress granted them four townships, at two dollars an acre, on a credit of fourteen years, on condition of introducing the vine and the olive. The land was divided between 340 *allottes*. The region in which they resolved to establish themselves, was an immense forest of trees and canes, interspersed with prairie. Cabins were erected about the White Bluff, in a rude and scattered manner, constituting a town, which was called Demopolis, the city of the people; the site proved, however, not within the grant, and was bought by an American company afterwards from the United States for $52 an acre.

Among the settlers in the wilds of Alabama, were the Count Lefebyre Desnoettes, whom Napoleon embraced on departing from Elba, with the words, "I cannot take leave of you all, but will embrace General Desnoettes," etc.; Mr. Peniers, a member of the National Assembly, who had voted for the execution of Louis XVI.; Colonel Nicholas Rooul, who had shared the exile at Elba, but who was at last reduced to the condition of a ferryman on the Alabama. His wife, who shared his fortunes, had been Marchioness of Sinabaldi, and Maid of Honor to Queen Caroline; Colonel Cluis, who had had the custody of Ferdinand of Spain, when imprisoned by Napoleon, afterwards tavern keeper at Greensboro'; Simon Chandron, a distinguished *literatem* and author; General Bertrand Clausel, the commander at Bordeaux, afterwards marketman of Mobile, and finally Governor of Algeria, under Louis Philippe; Henry L'Allemand, a Lieutenant-General of the Imperial Guard; Marshal Grouchy, whose *son* settled the grant; M. Lacanal, head of the Department of Education under the Emperor; General Juan Rico, an eloquent member of the Spanish Cortes, etc., etc. It is needless to say, that from a thousand untoward circumstances, the colony was a miserable failure. Says Colonel Pickett:

> "But in the midst of all their trials and vicissitudes, the French refugees were happy. Immured in the depths of the Tombigbee forest, where, for several years, want pressed them on all sides—cut off from their friends in France, surrounded by the Choctaws on one side, and land-thieves on the other—assailed by the venom of insects and prostrating fevers—nevertheless, their native gayety prevailed. Being in the habit of social intercourse, their evenings were spent in conversation, music and dancing. The larger portion were well educated, while all had seen much of the world, and such materials were ample to afford an elevated society. Sometimes their distant friends sent them rich wines and other luxuries; and upon such occasions parties were given, and the foreign delicacies brought back many interesting recollections. Well cultivated gardens, and the abundance of wild game, rendered the common living of the French quite respectable. The female circle was highly interesting. They had brought with them their books, guitars, silks, parasols and ribbons, and the village in which most of them dwelt, resembled in night a miniature French town. And then farther in the forest others lived, the imprints of whose beautiful Parisian shoes on the wild prairie, occasionally arrested the glance of a solitary traveler. And then again, when the old imperial heroes talked of their emperor, their hearts warmed with sympathy, their eyes kindled with enthusiasm, and tears stole down their furrowed cheeks."

The time had come when, from the rapid increase of the population of Alabama, she might take a place among the states of the confederation, on that truly *American* condition of sovereignty, full and perfect, except as to certain powers, and those only which are delegated to the federal Union. The convention was held at Huntsville, on the 5th of July, 1819, representing twenty-two counties. Many of its members have since been distinguished in the history of the state; and, although their biographies are deeply interesting, we could have wished that the author had devoted less of his space to them and more to the general deliberations of the convention, which are always interesting, and which constitute the land-marks in all subsequent times for the due understanding and administration of government. In a subsequent edition we trust that Mr. Pickett will adopt the suggestion, in which he will do good service to the rising generation of Alabamians.

At the first election, William Bibb was elected Governor of the State; James Dellett, Speaker of the House; and Thomas Bibb, President of the Senate. The first United States senators were William R. King, now Vice-president of the United States, and John W. Walker. Of the different judges appointed, interesting biographical sketches are presented in the volumes; among others, of William R. Pickett, who was the father of the author.

At this point the task of Colonel Pickett, which he has faithfully and earnestly performed, ends. We regret the abrupt termination, for, surely, with the abundant material around him, several interesting chapters might have been added upon the subsequent progress of Alabama, which has been so considerable in most of the elements of wealth. The historian must not be satisfied with chronicling "wars and rumors of wars," and political manœuvring and results. He must present the developments of society in its later and more perfect phases, as well as in its earlier. We must see the workings of the machine after it is finished, and after we are familiar with its mechanism. Hume admirably understood this, as we see in the recapitulatory chapter at the end of each reign, when he shows the increase and extension of British power in all the ramifications of commerce, and manufactures, and agriculture, and social and intellectual progress. Will not the author add another volume upon these subjects?

At the opening of the present paper, we ourselves contemplated a performance of the task assigned to Colonel Pickett, having, at our command, a great deal of material scattered through eleven volumes of the Review. We may yet combine and condense that material in a separate paper, but would far rather not poach upon the manor of our friend, who must have within his reach a great deal of other and later material. Let him set about its collection, and throw it into an appendix to his volumes. We give him an index of our own labors in his aid. See the Review, Alabama, vol i., 187; iii., 275, 316, 585; iv., 39, 57, 404; v., 381; vi., 229, 285; vii., 153, 163, 167, 441, 446, 476; viii., 477; ix., 19, 251, 214, 330; x., 73, 80, 560; xi., 407. See, also, head *Mobile*, i., 267; ii., 419; iii., 88, 317, 328, 332, 373; iv., 121; vi., 229, 428; vii., 89, 267, 269, 373, 459, 536; ix., 659; x., 560; xi., 161, 338, 526, 530, 647, 666. There are, also, a great many references scattered under the heads of the different industrial pursuits—q. v.

It is impossible to take leave of Mr. Pickett without expressing the great satisfaction we have received from the perusal of his volumes, and our earnest desire that the most substantial meed of public favor will be accorded to him by his countrymen.

COTTON CROPS, ALABAMA, FOR TWENTY-EIGHT YEARS.

Years.	Bales.	Increase.	Decrease.	Years.	Bales.	Increase.	Decrease.
1824..	44924	—	4137	1838..	309807	77122	—
1825..	58283	13359	—	1839..	251742	—	58065
1826..	74379	16096	—	1840..	445725	193983	—
1827..	89779	15400	—	1841..	317642	—	128083
1828..	71155	—	18624	1842..	318315	673	—
1829..	80329	9174	—	1843..	482631	164316	—
1830..	102684	22355	—	1844..	468126	—	14505
1831..	113075	10391	—	1845..	517550	49424	—
1832..	125605	12530	—	1846..	421669	—	95881
1833..	129366	3761	—	1847..	322516	—	99153
1834..	149513	20147	—	1848..	438324	115808	—
1835..	197847	48334	—	1849..	517846	79522	—
1836..	237590	39743	—	1850..	332796	—	185050
1837..	232685	—	4905	1851..	433646	100850	—

MONTHLY RANGE OF PRICES OF COTTON IN MOBILE FOR SIXTEEN YEARS.

SEASON OF	October.	November.	December.	January.	February.
1835–'36	— a 17	15 a 16½	13½ a 16	13½ a 16¼	14 a 17
1836–'37	16 a 20	15 a 19	12½ a 17⅛	12 a 17½	12 a 17⅛
1837–'38	7¾ a 12	6½ a 11⅜	6 a 12	7⅛ a 12⅛	6¼ a 12
1838–'39	10 a 11	10 a 12	10 a 14¾	11⅜ a 15⅛	12½ a 16⅜
1839–'40	12¾ a 13	11¼ a —	9¼ a 9½	8 a 8⅜	7¼ a 7⅜
1840–'41	7½ a 10½	7⅛ a 10	8½ a 10¼	8½ a 11⅝	7 a 12¼
1841–'42	nominal.	7⅞ a 9¾	7⅞ a 8⅞	7⅝ a 10⅛	7⅛ a 10
1842–'43	7⅛ a 8½	6⅝ a 8⅞	5¾ a 7⅝	5¼ a 7⅞	5¼ a 8
1843–'44	6 a 8	6⅜ a 8⅛	7⅝ a 9¼	7¾ a 10	7⅞ a 10
1844–'45	5¼ a 6¼	4⅜ a 6¼	4 a 5⅝	3½ a 6	3⅝ a 6⅜
1845–'46	6½ a 8⅞	6⅜ a 8¾	6¾ a 8¾	6 a 8½	6 a 8¼
1846–'47	8 a 10	9 a 11	8½ a 11	9¾ a 12	9 a 13
1847–'48	8½ a 11⅛	5⅛ a 8¼	6½ a 7¾	6 a 7¾	6 a 7
1848–'49	4⅛ a 6¼	4¼ a 5⅛	4½ a 6	5 a 7	5¼ a 7⅜
1849–'50	9 a 11	9¼ a 11¼	9⅜ a 11	10 a 12½	10⅜ a 12¾
1850–'51	12⅜ a 14¼	13 a 14½	12¼ a 13½	11⅛ a 13½	7 a 13

SEASON OF	March.	April.	May.	June.	Average for season.
1835–'36	15 a 20	15 a 20	13½ a 19	13½ a 19	14¼ a 16⅞
1836–'37	11½ a 17¼	6 a 13⅛	5 a 10	6½ a 11	10⅜ a 16
1837–'38	7⅜ a 12¼	8⅛ a 13½	6¼ a 13¾	8⅛ a 14	7¼ a 12⅜
1838–'39	13¾ a 17½	14 a 17⅜	14¼ a 18	13⅜ a 17	12⅛ a 15⅜
1839–'40	7 a 7½	7½ a 7⅝	7¼ a 7½	7¾ a 7⅞	8¾ a 8⅞
1840–'41	9½ a 12	10 a 12⅝	9⅝ a 12⅛	9½ a 11⅛	8⅜ a 11⅜
1841–'42	7 a 10	7 a 10⅝	7 a 10⅛	7⅛ a 10⅛	7⅛ a 10
1842–'43	4⅞ a 7⅝	5¼ a 7⅝	5⅜ a 8⅛	5⅞ a 8⅜	5¼ a 8
1843–'44	6⅜ a 9¼	5⅝ a 8¾	5 a 8	4⅜ a 8	6⅛ a 8⅞
1844–'45	4¼ a 7⅜	5 a 7	5 a 6⅞	5⅜ a 7	4⅛ a 6⅜
1845–'46	6¼ a 9	6¼ a 8⅞	5⅞ a 7¾	6 a 7¾	6¼ a 8¼
1846–'47	8½ a 11¾	9½ a 11⅝	9¾ a 12	8⅜ a 11	9 a 11⅜
1847–'48	6 a 7¾	4⅛ a 7	4 a 6¼	4½ a 6⅜	5⅜ a 7⅞
1848–'49	5⅜ a 7	5½ a 7	5¼ a 7⅛	6¼ a 8¼	5 a 7
1849–'50	10⅜ a 12	10¼ a 12	11 a 12¼	11 a 12½	10 a 12
1850–'51	6⅞ a 11⅛	8 a 11¼	5½ a 9⅞	5¼ a 9	8¾ a 12

We append the complete census of Alabama for 1850—that of 1840 we published some months ago.

STATE OF ALABAMA—SEVENTH CENSUS, 1850.

SOUTHERN.

COUNTIES.	Dwellings.	Families.	White Males.	White Females.	Colored Males.	Colored Females.	Total Free Population.	Slaves.	Deaths.	Farms.	Manufacturing Establishments.
Autanga	1114	1133	3231	3043	7	12	6293	8730	246	711	61
Baldwin	397	397	1161	939	42	54	2196	2218	71	121	38
Barbour	2306	2379	6603	6239	7	3	12852	10780	210	1325	39
Bibb	1153	1153	3642	3455	4	7	7108	2861	168	654	13
Butler	1210	1210	3606	3556	19	16	7197	3639	70	553	14
Chambers	2138	2138	6569	6215	7	11	12802	11158	209	1342	56
Choctaw	760	760	2451	2169	—	—	4620	3769	68	445	—
Clarke	873	873	2565	2336	6	3	4910	4876	198	456	16
Coffee	893	893	2787	2595	1	—	5383	557	66	604	9
Conecuh	847	847	2479	2443	4	2	4928	4394	123	498	12
Coosa	1725	1725	5358	5056	6	3	10423	4120	71	1130	13
Covington	503	503	1511	1566	47	41	3165	480	34	138	6
Dale	928	928	2928	2695	1	1	5625	721	42	697	—
Dallas	1375	1375	3845	3616	3	5	7469	22258	495	749	32
Green	1730	1730	4740	4525	28	21	9314	22127	625	1310	72
Henry	1142	1162	3549	3227	1	—	6777	2242	86	671	—
Lowndes	1354	1354	3814	3444	8	—	7266	14649	220	874	2
Macon	1849	1857	5911	5369	10	12	11302	15596	66	1203	49
Marengo	1353	1353	3829	3272	18	19	7138	20693	365	818	1
Mobile	3027	3318	9480	7826	395	543	18244	9356	722	249	61
Monroe	1005	1005	2934	2714	19	21	5688	6325	199	692	23
Montgomery	1881	1934	5449	4723	46	66	10284	19511	583	962	6
Pike	1973	1973	6181	5921	12	12	12126	3794	145	1533	5
Pickens	1896	1949	5624	5348	4	2	10978	10534	323	1438	34
Perry	1332	1352	4258	4084	15	11	8368	13917	220	1006	21
Randolph	1904	1904	5447	5169	15	14	10645	936	67	969	23
Russell	1411	1411	4424	3981	19	13	8437	11111	122	1049	4
Shelby	1170	1173	3681	3472	2	5	7160	2376	69	693	9
Sumter	1342	1373	3890	3479	29	21	7419	14831	275	668	12
Talladega	1861	1907	5902	5716	19	16	11653	6971	179	998	21
Tallapoosa	2037	2037	5864	5647	—	—	11511	4073	117	1270	18
Tuscaloosa	1914	1914	5400	5153	12	14	10579	7477	100	1115	32
Wilcox	983	983	2875	2641	1	—	5517	11835	128	666	6
Washington	258	262	616	579	9	13	1217	1496	34	141	—
	47644	48265	142604	132213	816	961	276594	280411	6656	27748	681

RECAPITULATION.

Dwelling-houses.................. 47,644
Families.......................... 48,265

White males.........142,604
White females.......132,213
——274,817
Free colored males.... 816
Free colored females.. 961
—— 1,777
Total free population..............276,594
Slaves..............................280,411

Total population...................557,005

Deaths during the year............ 6,656
Farms in cultivation............. 27,748
Manufacturing establishments producing annually $500 and upwards, 681

Federal representative population..444,840

STATE OF ALABAMA—SEVENTH CENSUS, 1850.

NORTHERN.

COUNTIES.	Dwellings.	Families.	White Males.	White Females.	Colored Males.	Colored Females.	Total Free Population.	Slaves.	Deaths.	Farms.	Manufacturing Establishments.
Benton.....	2188	2192	6834	6563	1	2	13400	3763	145	1227	31
Blount...........	1127	1132	3520	3421	—	—	6941	426	44	753	9
Cherokee........	2039	2039	6180	5990	7	16	12193	1691	106	1126	15
De Kalb..........	1251	1251	3871	3859	4	5	7739	506	66	616	8
Fayette..........	1408	1408	4374	4076	4	6	8460	1221	103	1065	24
Franklin...... ..	1955	1955	5875	5524	10	4	11413	8197	126	913	28
Hancock.........	251	251	739	741	—	—	1480	62	10	144	1
Jackson..........	2000	2000	5933	5823	18	22	11796	2292	137	856	4
Jefferson.........	1140	1141	3452	3262	2	6	6722	2267	55	752	4
Lauderdale......	1868	1892	5618	5479	23	37	11157	6015	207	1180	32
Lawrence........	1469	1471	4290	4053	29	34	8406	6852	261	930	24
Limestone........	1429	1429	4211	4194	8	7	8420	8063	302	649	28
Madison....... ..	2046	2047	6061	5876	78	86	12101	14326	409	1080	92
Marion...........	1108	1130	3510	3412	2	1	6925	908	86	573	5
Marshall..	1301	1336	4018	3935	13	12	7978	868	112	586	12
Morgan..........	1103	1104	3319	3319	28	22	6688	3437	163	584	13
St. Clair..........	944	944	2829	2672	4	3	5508	1321	68	573	—
Walker........ ..	799	799	2490	2367	—	1	4858	266	28	609	11
	25426	25521	77124	74566	231	264	152185	62481	2428	14216	341

RECAPITULATION.

Dwelling-houses....................25,426
Families.............................25,521

White males.......77,124
White females.....74,566
151,690
Free colored males.. 231
Free colored females, 264
495
Total free population...............152,185
Slaves............................ 62,481

Total population..................214,666

Deaths during the year............ 2,428
Farms in cultivation.............. 14,216
Manufacturing establishments, producing $500 and upwards annually 341

Federal representative population..189,673

TOTAL POPULATION, &c., OF THE STATE OF ALABAMA.

	Dwellings.	Families.	White Males.	White Females.	Colored Males.	Colored Females.	Total Free Population.	Slaves.	Deaths.	Farms.	Manufacturing Establishments.
Northern....... ..	25426	25521	77124	74566	231	264	152185	62481	2428	14216	341
Southern.	47644	48265	142604	132213	816	961	276594	280411	6656	27748	681
	73070	73786	219728	206779	1047	1225	428779	342892	9084	41964	1022

RECAPITULATION.

Dwelling-houses in the state........	73,070	Deaths during the year............	9,084
Families in the state...............	73,786	Farms in cultivation.......,......	41,964
		Manufacturing establishments, producing $500 and upwards annually,	1,022
White males........219,728			
White females.......206,779			
————426,507			
Free colored males.. 1,047			
Free colored females, 1,225			
————2,272			
Total free population................	428,779		
Slaves..................	342,892		
Total population..................	771,671	Federal representative population..	634,514

ART. IV.—INDUSTRY OF THE SOUTH.*

It has become very apparent within the last fifteen years, that the leading object of southern industry is far less productive than it was in the infancy of the cotton culture; that is to say, the average prices of cotton have not been maintained, even although the production has not largely increased since 1840. This diminished value of production appears to be progressive, growing out of causes which have developed themselves in the 35 years of peace which the world at large has enjoyed since 1815. In all that time, communication with distant countries has been multiplied, new sources of supply and demand have been opened, and great as has been the improvement in the demand for those articles which constitute the materials of manufacturing industry, the raw materials have been supplied in greater abundance, causing a continued fall in the values of each. Taking England as the workshop of the world, we may construct a table of raw materials imported from time to time.

IMPORTS RAW MATERIALS INTO ENGLAND.

	Hemp.	Flax.	Silk.	Wool.	Total lbs.	Cotton.
1835	72,352,200	81,916,100	4,027,649	41,718,514	196,013,963	326,407,692
1840	82,971,700	139,301,600	3,860,980	50,002,970	276,137,356	531,197,817
1845	103,416,400	159,562.300	4,058,737	59,813,855	325,851,292	682,107,700
1850	117,971,100	204,928,700	4,942,417	72,674,483	400,516,700	714,502,600
1851 10 mos.	117,504,000	98,645,300	3,863,651	69,924,106	290,637,556	666,223,760

Thus each of the five great materials of textile fabrics was greatly increased in supply, and some of them in a greater proportion even than cotton. From 1835 to 1850 the last rather more than doubled in quantity, that is to say, in the last year the import was 388 million pounds greater than in 1835. So, also, of the four articles, the import was 204 millions pounds greater. It will be observed, that this is only the increased receipt of raw materials into the workshops of England. Those of the continent have received similarly increased quantities. Now, if we compare the quantities of those articles which England has derived from the United States in each year, we have results as follows:

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* The Future Wealth of America: Being a Glance at the Resources of the United States, and the Commercial and Agricultural advantages of cultivating Tea, Coffee, and Indigo, the Date, Mango, Jack, Leechee, Guava, and Orange trees, &c., with a Review of the China trade. By Francis Bonynge, for 14 years a resident in India and West of China.

	Cotton export U. S. to G. B.	G. B. import cotton. lbs.	Four other articles. lbs.	Total import, raw materials, lbs.
1835	270,084,400	326,407,692	196,013,963	522,421,655
1840	494,915,090	531,197,817	276,137,856	807,335,073
1845	605,144,686	682,107,200	325,851,292	1,007,958.992
1850	431,531,091	714,502,600	400,516,700	1,115,009,300
1851	——	666,223,760	290,537,056	956,760,816

In 1835 the United States furnished one-half of the raw material of English manufacture; in 1850, about one-third only. Notwithstanding the continued fall in prices, other raw materials work more and more into fabrics which but a short time since were exclusively cotton, and the same operation apparent in this table of English consumption manifests itself also in all the markets of the continent, as well as in the United States. Through its means, the profits of the cotton culture are materially reduced, as also are the profits of English manufactures under general competition.

It will be observed of three principal materials, silk, cotton, and wool, that the events of the last quarter of a century have tended to promote supply more particularly in the last ten years, in which time the Chinese trade has been brought into greater regularity in supplying silk, and Australia has become the great wool country, while the United States' cotton power has been eminently developed. In the same period, also, the industry of Russia has received a more intelligent development, supplying greater quantities of hemp and flax at cheaper rates. All these sources have enhanced the supply of raw material for textile fabrics fifty per cent. in ten years, and, perhaps, somewhat faster than the demand for the goods produced would take them up. The influence of one material upon the other has been continually made more effective by the ingenious combinations of the cheapest among them into the new fabrics. Thus, fabrics of silk and wool, wool and cotton, silk and cotton, silk, cotton and wool, have all assumed different textures and different proportions of each material, according to the relative cheapness of each; consequently, the price of any one has always been checked by that of the others, and the value of all has been influenced by collateral circumstances. Thus, the strange operations of the so-called republican government of France, in 1848, injured the trade of the world. The genius of republicanism is individual, state and national independence; the intelligent and self-dependent exercise of the individual faculties make up the sum of a nation's prosperity. The great evils which overtake France and the other countries in Europe flow from centralization. The government, by means of taxes, absorbs the sum of the nation's earnings into the national treasury, and disburses it thence in the support of officers, cliques, and interests. It was supposed that when the revolution took place, that this state of things would be done away with; that the onerous taxes under which the people groaned would be remitted, and that a cheap government would permit the individual energies of the people to develop themselves. Instead of this, a most iniquitous and ignorant clique of demagogues gained power, increased the taxes, and gave a new impulse to the pernicious centralization. Thus, under the absurd pretence of employing people, the government ordered 10,000,000 fr. worth of silk, in one order, at Lyons. They paid for it $1 per yard out of the public treasury, and sold it at auction at 25 cents per yard. That silk was bought mostly by New-York houses, and may now be seen and recognized by its rich tri-color, supplanting cotton material in linings for garments. This is one item only out of a vast number of fallacies committed by the most disgusting demagogues that ever burlesqued government. Such operations destroy the profits of regular industry, by interfering with those immutable laws which cannot be disturbed without inflicting injury upon regular business, and that injury has been more or less apparent in the present year.

A singular combination of circumstances seems now likely for a time to reverse that course of events which, for so long a time, has multiplied the raw materials. Among the most prominent of these are the gold discoveries of California, Sandwich Islands and Australia. The tendency of this, particularly in the latter country, is to check if not destroy the wool crops in those regions—the shepherds having very generally deserted their flocks for the gold regions.

The case of the Australian colonies, (for this purpose they may all be considered as one,) are as different as can possibly be imagined; besides the usual occupations of agriculture, they have, as everybody knows, become a field for pastoral enterprise on a scale of unequaled magnitude. The sheep, which constitute their principal wealth, are divided into flocks counting from four hundred to a thousand in number, each of which is intrusted to the care of a single shepherd. Two of these flocks are generally driven together to the same station, where a third person resides, whose duty it is to change the hurdles and watch the sheep by night. The country being infested by wild dogs, it is absolutely necessary that some one should always be present with the sheep, in order to protect them from this cause of destruction, and the force required for this purpose is about three men to every twelve hundred sheep. Now, in the year 1848, the number of sheep in New South Wales and Port Philip exceeded eleven millions six hundred thousand, not to speak of the flocks of South Australia or Van Diemen's Land. It is not, probably, unreasonable to calculate, that in the three years which have elapsed since this return was made, the number of sheep has increased to at least fourteen millions. This enormous amount of property exists from day to day by virtue of the unceasing care and attention bestowed upon it by the shepherds, under a rigid system of central superintendence; without that care, it could not exist for a single week. Now, let our readers imagine the effect which must be produced on the mind of the proprietors of these fourteen millions of sheep by the information that a gold field has been discovered, which is certain to attract away from their existing engagements every shepherd and hut keeper in their employment. It will be vain to attempt to retain them by offers of increased wages. One employer of labor may compete with another, but who can bid against the imaginary riches of an El Dorado, in which every adventurer expects to find a splendid fortune impatiently awaiting his acceptance.

Nor is this all. The shearing of the sheep, which takes place about the month of October, is an operation not generally intrusted to the shepherds, but to persons who travel round the country for the purpose. Shearing cannot be long deferred in Australia without ruin to the fleece, from the presence of a seed of a particular grass, well known to the purchasers at our wool sales. If the fleece is not shorn before November, it is very greatly deteriorated in value. Now, those professional sheep-shearers are exactly the persons who, from their itinerant way of life and reckless habits, will be the first to swell the ranks of the gold-finders. Add to this, that the reckless and desperate characters who, having served their sentence of transportation, now swarm in all the Australian colonies, will flock to the gold field as a common centre, not so much with a view to labor as to profit by those opportunities of plunder which such a scene of confusion and excitement must necessarily afford, and we have enumerated causes quite sufficient to overthrow a social and economical system far more firmly established than that of New South Wales.

In China, the production of silk threatens to undergo change in the next year, in consequence of the apprehended convulsions in British India. That infamous government is, it is well known, supported almost entirely by the fiendish opium trade; and even the mercenary philanthropy of the English is so shocked by it, that there is very little doubt but that the charter of the East India Company, which expires in May, 1853, will fail to be renewed. A company so powerful, having at its control 350,000 troops, will not, however, relinquish its power. It can conquer China, and throw open the opium trade, by which its consumers may from 5,000,000 be increased to 50,000,000, and the speedy depopulation of even that country, which counts its inhabitants by hundreds of millions, may be effected. The appalling crime of *poisoning a whole nation* to become possessed of its country, is actually in contemplation by the English philanthropists.

In Russia, the threatening aspect of European politics is such as to threaten a disturbance of that inland peace which has so fostered and developed the flax culture. These events, which may diminish the supply of three great staples, are, however, likely to promote a greater supply of cotton. The emancipation of India, and the application of English capital to cotton production and transportation, we are assured by Mr. Bonynge, in the work before us, would produce a supply equal to that of the United States in quantity and quality; and the diminution of the quantities already sent to China would throw back upon the European merchants an increased supply to encounter the enhanced production of Egypt and Turkey, where the Sultan has, by the distribution of seed and other modes of encouragement, sought to engage his subjects in the culture, and with more or less success. The French in Algiers are also not without a certain degree of success in that culture, while the high prices of the past year have drawn such quantities from the British and the West Indies, as to afford striking evidence of the ability of those regions to supply under continued high prices.

During the course of the competition from the other raw materials to which we have alluded, the southern United States have felt the increasing necessity of varying the productions, by producing more food to supply the plantations with necessaries, in order to obviate the purchase of them, and something like a retrograde movement has manifested itself in respect of cotton. In the early history of the cotton trade, indigo, and many other productions, entered into the industry of the planters; but these were speedily all absorbed in the superior profits of cotton, which has, as we have seen, gradually diminished in profit before the increasing competition of other raw materials, and the increasing skillfulness of their application. There has, therefore, manifested itself a desire to raise other articles, in order to divide the labor and expenses of the plantation. Possibly to this fact, added to the deterioration of many cotton lands, may be ascribed the stationary character of the production since 1840. In the last five years the number of bales produced has been 11,306,844, an increase of 10 per cent., only, over the previous five years.

It is to be considered in this connection that the products of the slave states have not increased materially per hand in the present century, exclusive of the cotton crop. If we take a table of the export values of the leading southern staples with the total number of slaves, the total production will appear to be nearly as follows:—

	Naval Stores.	Rice.	Tobacco.	Sugar.	Cotton.	Total $	No. Slaves.	Production per hand.
1800	460,000	2,455,000	6,220,000	———	5,250,000	14,385,000	893,041	16 10
1810	473,000	2,626,000	5,048,000	———	15,108,000	23,255,000	1,191,364	19 50
1820	292,000	1,714,923	8,118,188	1,500,000	26,309,000	37,934,111	1,543,688	24 63
1830	321,019	1,986,924	8,833,112	3,000,000	34,084,883	45,225,838	2,009,053	22 66
1840	602,520	1,942,076	9,883,957	5,200,000	74,640,307	92,292,260	2,487,355	37 11
1850	1,142,713	2,631,557	9,951,023	14,796,150	101,834,616	130,556,050	3,179,509	43 51
1851	1,063,842	2,170,927	9,219,351	15,385,185	137,315,317	165,034,517	3,200,000	51 90

These figures for naval stores, tobacco, and rice, are the export values, and not the whole production, of which there is no accurate record. The figures for cotton are the crop valued at the export rate in official returns. Those for sugar and molasses are those of the New-Orleans prices current. As all these products are the results of slave labor, in addition to what supplies food for consumption, they are very nearly the exchangeable values produced per hand, and the increase has been pretty regular with the exception of the decade 1820–30, during which the oppressive tariffs of 1816–24–28 were in operation. The increase by this scale has been in fifty years $27,41 each hand, and the comforts of the workers have increased in a similar ratio. If, now, we deduct cotton from the aggregates, it appears that the production per hand in 1800 was $11, and in 1850, $8, a decline of $3 per hand. Probably one reason of the decline is the less rigorous treatment of the blacks. Their natural idleness of temper has been more indulged, and they have been more liberally supported; consequently there has been an absence of those devastating insurrections which were so frequent in the West Indies, and which led to abolition.

The average production of the cotton states per hand and per head of the whole population was as follows:—

	Slaves.	Product per hand.	Whites.	Total Population including free blacks.	Product per head.
1800....	893,041......	$16 10......	1,702,980......	2,621,361.....	$6
1810....	1,191,364......	19 50......	2,208,785......	3,480,904.....	7
1820....	1,543,688......	24 63......	2,842,340......	4,502,224.....	8
1830....	2,009,053......	22 66......	3,660,558......	5,848,303.....	8
1840....	2,487,355......	37 11......	4,632,640......	7,384,434.....	11
1850....	3,179,589......	43 15......	6,432,669......	9,830,889.....	13½

Thus cotton has been the main article for employing the blacks as it has also been of northern industry. The manufacture of cotton at the North has now reached the same extent as had that of England in 1830. Thus the quantity consumed in the United States in 1850 was 609,237 bales per census, which at 400 lbs. per bale, gives 243,694,800 lbs. M'Culloch gives the extent of the English cotton trade in 1830; and if we assume his figures as the rate for the manufacture of the same quantity in the United States, the result is as follows:—

McCulloch's Cotton Trade. 1830.		*United States Cotton Trade.* 1850.	
240,000,000 lbs. cotton, 7d.	£ 7,000,000	243,694,800 lbs., 11¼ c.......	26,775,000
Wages, 800 weavers, spinners, bleachers, £22 10s per year,	18,000,000	WAGES PER CENSUS.	
100,000 engines, machinists, smiths, &c., at £30 each,...	3,000,000	33,151 males,.......$7,846,536 59,136 females, ... 8,440,968	16,287,504
Wages, superintendence, machine materials, coals, &c., and profits, &c.,..........	6,000,000	80,000 engineers, &c., at $400, Wages, metals, profits, &c.,...	32,000,000 35,000,000
Total,......................	£34,000,000		110,062,504
Value goods exported,......	19,428,664		4,734,424
Value consumed at home,....	£14,571,336		$105,328,080

By this calculation, the value of cotton goods made in the United States, is $110,062,504, from the same quantity of cotton which yielded a value of $173,000,000 in England in 1830. This calculation gives the raw cotton at the actual export average of the year, which was not quite so high as the price in England in 1831, but does not embrace the cost of transportation to the factories. McCulloch gives the average wages of spinners, weavers and bleachers, at about $2,00 each, per week. The American wages are, $3,00 for girls, including board, and $4,00 male and female. The average wages of other parties employed are higher in the United States than in England. The census value of the cotton goods made in the Union is $61,869,184, or 44 millions less than that arrived at as above. The census can, however, in no degree, be depended upon, at least as far as the tables which have yet appeared afford evidence by analysis. This result follows, however, that England sold more than half her whole manufacture, while the United States consumed the whole of the same quantity made, and they found a market among those who produced the raw material, and the producers of the raw material paid for the wrought goods, prices enhanced by the tariff 30 per cent. above what the same goods could have been purchased for elsewhere. That is to say, on $105,328,000 worth of goods, $40,000,000 tribute was paid to the manufacturers by the consumers of goods. By these means it is that the aggregate production of the southern states averages, on data furnished by the census of 1840, $58 per head of all the population, while those of the New-England states average $84 per head. The manufacturers, almost with one accord, assert that they cannot continue operations without a tariff, which shall enable them to obtain such prices from the consumers of goods as will enable them to pay high wages to operatives. That is to say, slave labor must pay the high wages of white labor at the North. Suppose now, that slave labor did not exist, that neither raw material was furnished to manufacturers from the South, nor a market afforded to them for their wrought fabrics, would the wages of the North average as high as they have hitherto done? If the process was reversed, and the North had to pay the South 30 per cent. advance on their products, the average of the southern products would by so much be enhanced, and that of the North be diminished in the same ratio. That is to say, from an average of $84 per head, at the North, production would sink to an average of $60, and the average southern production, from $58, would rise to $71 per head; instead of being $24 less, it would be $11 per head more than the average of northern productions.

The object of the work of Mr. Bonynge, which we have now under notice, is to bring about some such result as this, viz., by diversifying the industry of the South with a greater variety of products, at least as profitable in their culture as cotton, to equalize the profits of the two regions, and cause the industry of the South to enrich that region as well as the North. The objects of cultivation which he proposes to introduce, are tea, coffee, indigo, mango, bamboo, india rubber, cane, lime, nutmeg, citron, &c. The leading articles are the three first. The quantities of these articles consumed in the United States, England, and France, are—

				Value.
Coffee	232,000,000	lbs.	....	$58,000,000
Tea	70,000,000	"	....	20,000,000
Indigo	20,000,000	"	....	20,000,000
Total	322,000,000	"	....	$98,000,000

Mr. Bonynge has been a successful indigo planter, and a successful tea planter, in the East; and he affirms and shows that these vast crops can be produced in the United States as profitably as any other product, and in as great quantities. Indigo, it is known, was one of the first staple exports of the southern colonies, and still grows wild, waiting to receive a little of that improved and scientific attention which has been withheld from it during seventy years. In some localities of the South it still continues to be raised, and the export returns of the present year show an export value of $3,000 domestic indigo. At the commencement of the present century, before cotton had absorbed all the energies of the South, there was exported 134,000 pounds of indigo, at 62 cents per pound. Since that time the demand for indigo has increased in the proportion of the supply of raw materials requiring to be colored; and the East Indies now export 13,000,000 pounds of indigo, which sells on the spot in Calcutta for $1 to $2 per pound, and the finest descriptions at $2 45. Thus, the relative value of cotton and indigo has changed places: the former, in half a century, has fallen from $1 to 8 cents per pound, and the latter has risen from 62 cents to $2. The culture of indigo has been abandoned to India, where, in spite of the high prices, the infamy of the government, the robberies by the officers, the inroads of the Tartars, the idleness of the people, the uncertainty of the seasons, conspire to destroy profits. All these circumstances reduce the chances to one good year out of three. Mr. Bonynge shows pretty conclusively, that the plant may be raised advantageously in the southern states, without any of these drawbacks upon success. He describes the process of culture and manufacture thus:

> "The land is ploughed or hoed, say some nine inches deep, and the soil is pulverized, i. e., clods well broken, roots of grass and weeds carefully taken away; then the seed, mixed like flax-seed with clay, is cast in the ground, and a very light harrow; a bush with moderate weight on it is used often in India. If weeds spring up with the plant, it would be necessary to take them out; the plant, after a few showers, covers over the land, and keeps down all weeds. It grows even to some six feet high, varying from four feet to five feet. When it gets, or before it gets, to its full height, and before the leaves get yellow in the least, the plant should be cut, and carried to the factory the same day. All plants should be cut very early in the morning, and then placed in the vats, or otherwise not to be heaped up to get heated. Each vat may be made to hold from 5,600 to 8,000 lbs. of plants. The plant is all placed horizontally in the vat, and when filled up, hurdles are laid on the top of the plant, and beams are laid across the hurdles; the ends of the beams being secured at the side walls of the vat. The water is then poured in, and the plant is steeped for ten hours or upwards, depending on the heat very much. The water is then drawn off from a vent at the bottom of the vat, into another vat built at the base of the one in which the plant had been steeped. The beams are then raised off the hurdles, and the hurdles taken away; and the steeped plant is taken out of the vat and made use of for firewood. A large quantity of potash might be obtained from it.
>
> "The water being drawn off from the upper vat, the steeped plant is then beaten up by six men entering into it, and beating with their hands until the coloring matter which is contained in it begins to show itself in small atoms. The men then get out, and the indigo or fecula subsides, and soon after the water is drawn off. There are two vents in the lower vat; the upper vent is for drawing off the water, the lower one for drawing off the indigo, and a quantity of the water which could not be well drained off, without disturbing the fecula. The fecula is then put into a small vat, either of wood or masonry, and allowed to rest some time, and then more of the water is drained off. It is then taken to be boiled in a boiler generally from six to ten feet square, and four or five deep, and all froth carefully skimmed off. It takes five or six hours to boil it. The boiler is made of copper or iron, as the party may fancy.

"When boiled, it is let out from a vent in the bottom of the boiler into a vat, where the fecula soon subsides, and more of the water is then drawn off. It is then filled into square cases, pierced with small gimlet holes at about two inches apart; in the wooden square is placed a cloth fitting to the square; and then the boiled indigo, still retaining a good deal of water, and consequently of a thin consistency, is filled into the square; a lid is then placed on the top of the square, which fits into it, and all is placed under the press; and as the lid is pressed down into the square, it forces the water through the cloth, and through the holes in the side of the frame; then, when all the moisture that can be pressed out is done so, the sides of the square or box are taken off, and the indigo left on what had been the bottom. The whole is then divided by a board, or measure, into eight parts, and cut through by a piece of wire, giving sixty-four squares; then each square or cake is placed on a hurdle in the shade to dry. The doors of the drying house are locked up, and the indigo in that state takes a month to dry; when it is packed in a strong, coarse case, and sent to market.

"In precipitating the indigo, it is not good to use anything. Lime is destructive, and gum makes it hard, and liable to crack, which is not liked."

He, then, following his own experience, gives the cost of culture and manufacture in India, with the probable expense in America:

"I will give the above items in tabular order, with an estimate of the probable expenses in America:

Cost of 200 to 250 monds, or 16,000 to 20,000 lbs. plant, say		$36 00 to 40 00
Three men to fill and empty 3 vats......	15 cents.	
Raising water for 3 vats................	25 "	
Half of one man's salary to boil........	6 "	
Nine men to beat 3 vats.................	45 "	
Two men to press the indigo............	10 "	
Expenses of conveying 200 monds, say..	$2 00 "	
Fireman................................	5 "	
Wood	30 "	
Packing and chest, 60 cent. 3½ monds...	20 "	
	$3 56	$3 56 to 3 56
Total expenses per 75 lbs....................		$39 56 to 43 56

To which is to be added expenses of law-suits, loss of advances—making it, at the very lowest, 53 dollars.

PROBABLE EXPENSE IN AMERICA.

"It is necessary to ascertain in some way the produce per acre. Thirty monds would be a good produce per biggah; the biggah measures 20 khudams (steps) of five feet each; the step in India, or khudam, is the space between where the right foot is raised from the ground, to where it rests on the ground again—twenty khudams, equal, therefore, 100 feet; that squared is 10,000 feet—43,560 square feet in an acre—therefore 4 1-3 or more biggahs in an acre, and consequently there would be 130 monds, or 10,400 lbs. of green plant on an acre. The biggah was generally calculated five to an acre. The Bengal biggah is three to an acre.

"But as the above is my own experience in measuring and weighing, I will here follow it. Now the ground where I had been cultivating that indigo was excessively sandy—so that at the lowest calculation 130 monds, or 10,400 lbs. of plant, may be put down for an acre in America.

"For indigo I would give five men to prepare an acre and sow it, not that the labor is greater than in cotton: weeding, one man; cutting the plant, six men per acre; the conveying it to the factory would cost little, as the factory could have the lands around it under indigo, which could not be the case in East India. Therefore,

For preparing and sowing land, 6 men per acre, at 20 cents	$1 20
For weeding 2 " "	40
Cutting plant 6 " "	1 20
Conveying to factory, a man and horse, say	60
Two men to fill and empty one vat	40
Two men to beat two vats	40
One man to boil six vats, ⅓ part of his wages for two vats	8
Firewood, and man, two vats	28
Packing and chest, 3⅓ monds, say 60 cents—⅓	20
Raising water, two men for six vats—for one vat	7
	$4 83

As 220 monds of plant make 75 lbs. of indigo, therefore as 130 : $4 83 : : 220 : or $8 17 per mond.

"This is not much more than one-sixth the price it would cost in India. In America, all the beating of vats and raising of water could be done by machinery. The sowing of indigo would be from 1st of April, and the manufacturing would end the middle of September. The indigo plant requires to be only weeded once, and there can be no hoeing after the seed be sown. If it is shown that the manufacturing with labor at twenty cents in America, is cheaper than in India, where labor is put down at five cents, it arises from the purchase of the plant. The indigo fails so often in India from causes shown, that if the ryot did not get a fair profit when successful in saving his crop, to pay for former losses, he could not go on.

"Paying for labor 50 cents per day, the expense of 75 lbs. would be,

Preparing and sowing land, 6 men per acre	$3 00
" weeding 2 "	1 00
Cutting plant 6 "	3 00
Conveying to factory	1 00
Vats, filling and emptying, 2	1 00
Beating vats 2	1 00
Boiling	10
Firewood, &c.	25
Packing and chest, 3⅓ monds, 75 cents, 1-5	15
Raising water	20
	$10 70

"Say 220 monds at 75 lbs. of indigo. Therefore as 130 : 10 70 : : 220 : $18 10 for 75 lbs.

"The lowest description of indigo sells in Calcutta for not less than 30 dollars for the 75 lbs. The average price for good, for the last years, would be about 65 dollars for 75 lbs.; but the best Bengal indigo is rarely under 80 dollars, and from that up to 100 dollars. Some time ago it had been up as high as 340 Rs. or 170 dollars; that is, the sale price obtained by the planter at Calcutta, for 75 lbs."

The causes of loss and failure which belong to India, and which do not pertain to America, taken into consideration, the raising and manufacture of indigo would appear to be far more profitable than cotton or even sugar, which has made such progress in the last ten years. The value of this article to commerce is very considerable in the United States. It pays a duty of 20 per cent., and the value imported is about $1,000,000 for 1,500,000, or about 70 cents per lb. average. In England, the import averages 9,318,300 pounds, worth $6,000,000, and into France about as much more. If in the United

States such results as those which the experience of Mr. Bonynge points out, can be realized, the consumption could be immensely promoted, and the crops of the South become second in importance.

But, perhaps, to the American, the most interesting chapters of Mr. Bonynge's book are those which treat of the tea trade. The world has been so accustomed to regard China as the sole source of supply for that pure, most healthy, and delicious beverage, that it is not without some degree of incredulity that the subject of transferring its culture to our shores is apparent. Nevertheless, Mr. Bonynge's experience in the culture, general intelligence and knowledge of our southern country, eminently entitles his exposition to the most profound attention. That gentleman had four tea plantations in the Assam country, and was quite successful as far as making choice tea cheap went. The cause of his retiring is thus briefly given by himself:

"The Hon. East India Government induced me by letter, promising me a grant of Koojoo, Buramanjan and Gin-lang, and protection for myself and people, to enter the Tartar country—of a part of which they had taken possession. On the strength of these promises, I proceeded to the country, with the view of civilizing the people, and also to better myself. I worked hard in that out-of-the-way country (which, although larger than some of the United States, has not yet found a place on the maps of the world) for five years. During that time, the Tartars took up arms to drive the British from the country, but proved unsuccessful. However, government, for cause or causes not assigned, and without any notice to me, withdrew the guard from Koojoo, and also the surrounding guards, and so resigned the country, to all appearance; and the Tartars, who viewed me as the then sole representative of the Company, holding their land on the Company's authority, assembled at night and destroyed my property, and killed several of my servants."

Then follow long extracts from Indian publications, giving a full account of the events which ruined his hopes there, and determined him to try his fortune in our own country, not only more peaceful, but possessing greater advantages than even China for that culture. We have not space to copy his very interesting chapters upon this head, but commend to our readers the work itself, which contains also some valuable hints upon other objects of culture. We will append, however, the estimated cost of a tea farm in the four years, according to the experience of Mr. Bonynge, in Assam.

"In the fourth year, on the 100 acres, I have shown that 30,000 lbs. of tea cost to manufacture, &c., $1,082 50, being but 3 1-3 cents per lb., and that, by use of machinery, the quantity might be manufactured for 2 2-3 cents per lb., calculating the expense of slave-labor at 20 cents per diem.

"But calculating it at 50 cents per day, for free labor, it would be as follows:

Hoeing 100 acres, 2 men per acre	$100 00
Sieves (additional) 50 at 50 cents each	25 00
Plucking leaves, say 1200 lbs. per acre, of green leaf, one man 60 lbs. at 50 cents, or 120,000 lbs	1,000 00
Manufacturing, one man to 60 lbs. green leaf, or 120,000 lbs	1,000 00
Charcoal and firewood, 10 cents per 100 lbs. dried leaf, or 30,000 lbs	30 00
Packages for 80 lbs. 50 cents, or on 30,000 lbs	187 50
Total expense	$2,342 05

30,000 lbs. for $2,343, or 7 4-5 cents per lb.

"This would be a means of not only enriching the cultivator, but of keeping up the price of labor to some $180 a year, and would leave the cotton trade and rice trade to fewer hands. It would give employment to the many, encourage immigration, and give to all a greater degree of prosperity.

"The trade of a teamaker might be an item the first season, but after the first crop every man in the business would be *au fait*. Therefore I do not put down any item for a tea maker. The rolling of the leaves might be done by machinery, and would, at the first estimate, in which I allow the expense of a slave at 20 cents a day, be a saving of 1 1-3 cents per lb.; or, in the second estimate, wherein I allow the hire of labor to be 50 cents per day, a saving of 3 1-3 cents per lb. Leaving the cost of labor 50 cents, still with machinery, simple in its structure, and therefore of very trifling cost, tea would cost the planter only 4 7-15 cents per lb."

The general view of the trade between the countries of Europe and America with China and the East Indies, is one of great interest. The oppressive Indian government is supported almost altogether by the sale of its opium to China and England, and the United States chiefly supply China with the means of buying that opium, by purchasing its silks and teas. Now, the certain mode of destroying English rule in India, and consequently of upsetting their schemes for supplanting United States cotton, is to support China in the production of tea. The national disadvantages which China labors under from the absence of roads, the topography of the country, the destitution of wood for tea chests, and the want of means of transportation, more than counterbalance the cheapness of labor, while the land of the South will produce better and larger crops of tea with less liability of injury from drouth. The tea plant is more hardy than cotton, inasmuch as hard freezing will not affect it. The time will undoubtedly come when the culture and manufacture will occupy the fields of Virginia and other southern states, to the great profit of the owners.

The annual contribution of the United States to the support of the British East India Company is about $5,000,000 per annnm, being the value of the tea purchased in China. This will appear more directly from the following balance-sheet of a year's trade with China, drawn from the treasury reports.

IMPORT AND EXPORT FROM AND TO CHINA, 1850.

EXPORT.			IMPORT.		
Domestic Produce.			Tea, lbs,	28,743,376	4,585,720
Ginseng, lbs	367,448	122,916	Sugar, lbs	944,060	27,023
Beef, lbs	1,226	12,872	Cotton goods	—	3,299
Butter and cheese, lbs.	40,531	8,178	Silk goods	—	1,443,448
Pork, &c	—	17,578	Matting	—	81,423
Flour, bbls	3,156	19,280	Tin	—	105,843
Corn, bushels	4,172	2,511	Indigo, lbs	43,465	14,461
Spirits, gallons	9,951	4,429	Hemp, cwt	435	5,951
Soap, lbs	77,032	4,430	Manilla, cwt	6,290	34,587
Bread, lbs	54,700	2,250	All other imports	—	291,717
Cotton goods	—	1,203,997			
All others	—	87,020			
Total domestic		1,485,961			
Foreign Goods.					
Silver	—	25,000			
Lead, lbs	1,294,240	53,617			
All others	—	40,639			
Total foreign goods		119,256			
Total exports		$1,565,217	Total imports		$6,593,462
Balance of imports paid by bills on London					$5,028,245

Thus, five million dollars per annum is paid by bills on London, drawn against United States cotton, mostly sold in that market, and diminishes by that extent the amount of specie drawn from London, or during the past year, has increased the amount sent there. The London bills given by the United States dealer for tea, are by the China merchants paid over to the East India Company for opium, and by them remitted to London, where they are paid by cotton or gold sent from the United States. The tea so imported is in amount at an average of 16 cents per lb., and costs 20 cents, freight, &c., included; while Mr. Bonynge shows that it can be raised on our soil for four cents. The cotton in the Atlantic states costs six cents, and laid down in Liverpool seven cents, and sold at that to reimburse tea bills coming from India at twenty cents per lb. Then, three lbs. of cotton, which cost eighteen cents on plantation, are given for one lb. of tea, which could have been raised for four cents. Now, if that tea were raised at home, so as to supply the 30,000,000 lbs. per annum, which the United States requires, there would not only be a direct saving of $3,600,000 upon this article, but the diversion of employment would add as much to the value of cotton. Not only so, but the 80,000,000 lbs. of tea which England now requires, would be drawn from the United States; and she would be forced, instead of being independent in respect of cotton, to be still more dependent for another tropical product.

The necessity on the part of the South for introducing some new staples, is involved in the course of the progress of the Great West. The valley of the Mississippi will become, eventually, the great seat of manufacture for the world; and the states west of the Alleghanies must produce articles so similar to those of the Atlantic states, that the actual interchange of commodities must yearly become less. The tea, coffee, and sugar, which are now imported in northern vessels, and which find their way west in exchange for farm produce and raw materials, may all be raised at the South as successfully as the last named, sugar; and while the course of western industry will gradually separate the East and West, both will be bound in stronger ties and more absolute dependence to the South. If to the cotton, rice and tobacco, which England and western Europe now draw from the South, the great items of tea and indigo are added, and there seems to be no serious obstacle in the way, while profit lures to the enterprise—then, indeed, will the era of southern prosperity have dawned, and oscillations upon any branch of culture may always be made to relieve any over-production of the others. The cultivation of sugar is a remarkable evidence of what may be done. Pennsylvania boasts that in twenty-five years her coal production from nothing rose to $15,000,000 per annum; but the sugar production of Louisiana has exceeded it in less time.

While commending the work of Mr. Bonynge to our readers, we would remark, that that gentleman has undertaken to supply the genuine tea plants and the other plants which he seeks to introduce, to order; and quite a number of South Carolina gentlemen have entered into it with spirit.

ART. V.—EXCESSIVE SLAVE POPULATION.—THE REMEDY.

WHAT shall we do to remedy the evils of an excessive slave population, is the question that we propose now to consider. The number of slaves in the United States was 697,897, in 1790, and in 1850 it was 3,179,589, showing an increase of 2,481,692 since 1790. From 1830 to 1840 the annual increase of slaves was 47,831, and from 1840 to 1850 it was 69,223, and from 1850 to 1860 it will probably be as much as 80,000. The number of slaves in the United States, in 1820, was 1,538,128, which is about half the amount of the present slave population. It thus appears, that the slave population of this country has been doubled within the last thirty years. The increase of slaves within the last ten years was 692,234, and it is probable the increase will be 800,000 during the next ten years. In 1860, the slaves will be about 4,000,000. At the end of the next thirty years it will be about six millions and a half, and at the commencement of the next century it will not fall far short of thirteen millions. This is a state of things which must inevitably come, unless there should be some unforeseen and unexpected occurrences to prevent it. It may be a remote, but it is a sure result. In this view of the case, we are led to inquire, with a feeling of deep interest, what is to become of this rapidly increasing population? Can they be profitably employed in agriculture, and will we have a sufficiency of land for them to cultivate? Some may hope that we will find an outlet for our slaves in territories now unoccupied by slaves, and where there are but few inhabitants. It has been a favorite idea with some of our statesmen to acquire territory in which our slave institutions will exist, and thus preserve us from the dangers of a redundant slave population. Whatever hope may have once been entertained that this was a feasible scheme, has, we think, been dissipated by the occurrences of the past four years. We should look at things as they really exist, and not permit ourselves to be deluded with false hopes which are never to be realized. We must be aware of the approach of danger before we will take the necessary steps to guard against it. We must in all candor say, that we think the limits of slave territory are fixed. California, New Mexico, and Utah, are, we think, already closed against the institution of slavery, and any other territories which we may acquire will share the same fate. The South has been excluded from an equal participation in the enjoyment of the territories recently obtained from the Mexican Republic, whether properly or improperly, justly or unjustly, constitutionally or unconstitutionally, it is not our purpose now to inquire. We only wish to deal with facts as they exist, without undertaking to determine how this state of things was brought about, and who are responsible. That it is the interest of the northern people to favor the extension of slavery, we entertain not a doubt; and in attempting to confine it within its present limits, they are aiming a fatal blow at their own prosperity, if the southern people will now adopt that line of policy which their duties and their interests alike demand. The introduction of slavery into territories where it now does not exist, would benefit the North by furnishing a greater quantity of those raw materials which the North so much needs for manufacturing purposes, by opening new markets for the sale of northern fabrics, and by enlarging the commerce of the northern ship owners. If, however, slavery is confined within its present limits, the rapid increase in the number of slaves will compel the southern people to employ their slaves in the manufacture of such articles as are now made almost exclusively in the northern states. In this way the slave labor of the South will, instead of contributing to the wealth of the North, as it has heretofore done, become the successful competitor of northern white labor in those departments of industry of which the North has in times past enjoyed a monopoly. We will be compelled to use the surplus black population, which is likely to accumulate upon our hands, in cotton and woolen factories, in iron furnaces, and in all those pursuits which now furnish employment to so large a portion of the northern people. Although at this time the white labor of the North may be somewhat cheaper for manufacturing purposes than slave labor, on account of the comparative scarcity of slave labor and the value of the agricultural products chiefly raised by it, yet, when the number of slaves is doubled or trebled, and they are confined within their present limits, the real or fancied advantages which the North enjoys from cheap labor will no longer exist. When this takes place, the southern people will be forced to resort to employments for their slaves other than those in which they are now engaged, which are mostly agricultural. Not only will a large portion of the cotton raised in the South be manufactured in the South, but many of those extensive establishments of mechanical industry at the North, which depend upon the South for their patronage, yea, for their very existence, will be transferred to the South, and we will not then be dependent on the North for the articles of clothing we and our slaves use. If we knew the amount of money annually taken from us to purchase articles of negro clothing, including hats, boots, shoes, blankets, &c., we would be startled. Why is this, and how long will it continue? If the people of the North are not willing for us to take our slaves to the new territories, we must, in self-defence, bring the slave labor of the South into competition with the free white labor of the North. What is to be the result when the northern people lose their southern trade, when they find the manufacture of cotton and woolen fabrics transferred to the South, and all their mechanics, who obtain a livelihood by making articles for the southern market, thrown out of employment, we do not pretend to conjecture; but be it what it may, it will be the fruit of northern opposition to the institution of slavery and to its extension. Will we be able, it may be asked, to find a market for our fabrics, if we manufacture all or a considerable portion of the cotton raised in the southern states? Most assuredly we can. We will have for our market-place the whole habitable globe, and all the people of the earth will be our customers. We can give our manufactures in exchange for the teas and silks of Asia, the sugar and coffee of the West Indies, the palm oil, dye stuffs, ivory and gold of Africa; and, in a word, for any thing which any other people have to sell, because cotton, on account of its cheapness, its durability, and its comfort, is destined to be the clothing for mankind. We have now seen that the South is not dependent upon the North for anything, except so far as she chooses to make herself so; and that the North is dependent upon the South for her existence, as a commercial and manufacturing people. Ought not this to teach the North to beware lest she carry her aggressions to that point, where resistance will become the first and highest duty of the South? One of the most obvious remedies against an excessive slave population, is to employ a considerable portion of that kind of labor in the construction of plank roads, turnpike roads, and rail-roads in the southern states. Let us suppose that one-fourth of the labor now engaged in raising cotton should be thus directed: the amount of the cotton crop would be diminished one-fourth, and the increased price consequent thereon would make up for the diminished quantity, and would enable the cotton growers to realize as much money, as if the one-fourth of the labor had not been turned into other channels. Suppose again, that another fourth should be employed in factories of different kinds; this would cause a further diminution in the quantity raised, and a corresponding increase in the price. Should the cotton crop of the United States be reduced to 1,500,000 bales per annum, of which one-third would be consumed in the southern states, it is easy to see what a fatal effect it would have upon the manufacturers of the northern states and of Europe. The result would be their utter prostration. We have supposed this, which may seem an extreme case, to show that the northern states, and Europe also, are in the power of the cotton growers of the South. A withdrawal of the cotton of the United States from England, would produce an instant and terrible revolution in that island; and to cut off from the northern states of this confederacy their southern trade, would destroy their merchants and manufacturers, cause a failure of their banks, and bring about a financial crisis such as they have never experienced, and of which their imagination can scarcely conceive. The amount of cotton consumed in the northern states during the last five years, has been 2,360,645 bales, or an average per annum of 473,031 bales. The value of the cotton consumed during the last five years in the northern states has been $88,637,049, or an average of $17,727,409 per annum. The profits arising from the manufacture of this cotton, and selling it to the northern people, amounted to perhaps double the cost of the raw material, whilst it furnished employment to thousands of operatives, and secured to the northern farmer a market for his produce. Surely, then, the North can have nothing to hope from a disruption of this confederacy, which many of its people seem to be striving so hard to bring about. The remedies then which we propose, to prevent the evils of a redundant slave population, are, *the employment of slave labor in the construction of rail-roads throughout the southern* *states, and the use of negroes in our factories and in our workshops.*[*] In this way we can build all the important roads in the southern states without taking anything of consequence from the available means of our people, and we can obtain those articles of taste and elegance, which we now rely upon the North to furnish us, made at our own doors. We must bring slave labor directly in competition with northern labor. We must continue to seek out and find new fields for slave labor, whenever it ceases to be profitable in agriculture. These are the measures which we are bound by the highest obligations to adopt, to ward off the alarming evils of a rapidly and fearfully increasing slave population, confined as we think it will be within its present limits, unless there is a great change in the political condition of the country.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE COTTON TRADE.[†]

PRICES—STOCK—SUPPLY—DEMAND—FOREIGN COMPETITION—CONSUMPTION—HOME AND FOREIGN STATISTICS, ETC.

FROM year to year, almost without exception, the reports of a short crop are circulated everywhere on this side of the Atlantic; and on the other side, with the same regularity, are heard the tales of ruinous prices of goods, and of bankrupt brokers and manufacturers. These rumors are not, however, peculiar to the dealers in cotton. They are common to all the pursuits of business where the supply and demand are irregular and uncertain. The bulls and bears in Wall-street are engaged in the same efforts as the cotton sellers of New-Orleans and the buyers of Manchester. The trade in flour, tobacco, and coffee, as well as in wines, spices and fruits, is subject to the same false reports. They are found everywhere; they are unavoidable, and they cannot be prevented.

These reports sometimes imply fraud and falsehood—but often this is not the case. In a country like ours, where cotton is cultivated in every variety of soil and climate, the drought which is so disastrous to one is often a blessing to another. The frost, the worm, the rust and the floods, are seldom universal. Partial showers may relieve the general absence of rain. The wet bottoms do not require the same seasons as the thirsty uplands. The early crops do not demand the same supply of rain and sunshine as the late plantings. While thus from numerous localities the rumors of ruin and destruction may be true, they may not be general or universal. Those who meet with calamities make the loudest noise, for it affects them deeply. Those who do not suffer say but little, for they obtain only their wishes or expectations, and there is nothing in this to call particular attention to their condition. The losses affect not only the planter, but the factor, the merchant, and others, and thus many join in the cry of disasters. The good fortune of others has no one to herald it, because few have any particular interest in the result.

But though these false reports may always be expected, and do not of themselves imply fraud and deception, they do nothing but harm to all concerned. Sometimes they appear to help the planter, but this is fully balanced at another time by a loss equal to his former gain. As the profit and loss are thus sure at last to be fairly balanced, the unnecessary fluctuations in price caused by these false reports are a serious and important injury to both parties. It would be a great advantage to all, if greater steadiness could be given to prices. When the planter makes his purchases and expenditures, expecting to receive fifteen cents for his cotton, and sells at last for nine, the loss and inconvenience are greater than the gain and gratification that attend an advance from nine to fifteen. So it is with the manufacturer. If he contracts to deliver his cloth or his yarn, when cotton is low, a rise in the raw material forces him to ruinous sacrifices, perhaps to pay extraordinary interest to the money lender, or close his business in bankruptcy. Goods will not rise immediately with an advance in cotton. They fall sooner with a decline than they rise with an advance. The loss is thus more than the gain. As greater regularity and uniformity would be promoted by correct and accurate knowledge of the crops and markets, the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, would be of advantage to all.

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[*] These positions have frequently been insisted upon by ourselves.—[ED.

[†] The first of the present series of reviews of the cotton trade contributed to the pages of the Merchants' Magazine, by Professor C. F. McCay, of the University of Georgia, was published in the number for December, 1843, (vol. ix., pages 516—523,) and has been continued annually, from that time to the present. For convenience, as matter of reference, we give the number, volume, &c., of each article in the order in which they may be found by those who have the numbers or volumes of this magazine from this time, (1843,) as follows: See No. for December, 1844, vol. xi., pages 517—522; December, 1845, vol. xiii., pages 507—512; December, 1846, vol. xv., pages 531—539; December, 1847, vol. xvii, pages 559—564; December, 1848, vol. xix., pages 594—600; December, 1849, vol. xxi., pages 595—601; and December, 1850, vol. xxiii., pages 594—604. In the last article referred to above, the writer, instead of his usual annual review of the cotton trade for a single year, extends the examination back to a longer period, and gives statistical tables of the production, consumption, and prices of cotton for each year from 1840 to 1850, and the more important statistics of the trade, as far back as 1825.—ED. MER. MAG. (We have, for the last three or four years, copied these valuable papers for the benefit of our readers, which will be found by consulting the general *index* of our ten volumes.)—ED. DE BOW'S REVIEW.

It is a common opinion among the planters and factors of the South, that a short crop not only brings a higher price, but actually produces a larger amount of money than a large or an average crop. It would be strange if this were true. Fine seasons, instead of being the kind gifts of a bountiful providence, would then be an injury and a curse. The destructive drought and early frosts would be a positive advantage to the agriculturist. The planter would be acting wisely for his own interests if he should destroy a large portion of what he had produced. These seem like strange propositions, and at first sight, are very improbable. Let us examine them by the history of prices for twenty-five years past.

The receipts for our cotton are constantly changing: they rise and fall like a wave of the sea. At times they go up for several years, and then decline suddenly. At other times the rise is rapid and the fall gradual. In twenty-five years the value of our cotton exports, according to the official reports of the Secretary of the Treasury, has six times reached the highest point, and five times the lowest. Of these six years of large receipts, three of them were large crops, two an average, and one small. Of the five years of small receipts, four of them were small crops, and one an average. In these eleven years, the rule therefore was true but once.

Perhaps, however, the rule deserves a fuller examination. We have supposed above that the crop and its proceeds were large when they exceeded the amounts of the year before and the year after, and small when they were less than both. It would be fairer, perhaps, to take the average of every five years, both of the crop and of the money it was sold for, and to call that an average crop which was near—say within 5 per cent. of this average. Thus, for the year 1847 the number of bales delivered at the seaports was 1,779,000; the average of 1845, '46, '47, '48, and '49 was 2,270,000 bales, so that the receipts were less than the average of 471,000 bales, or 21 per cent. below. This would, therefore, be regarded as a very short crop, because more than 5 per cent. from the average. So with the amounts for which the cotton was sold. In 1848 the value of our cotton exports was $62,000,000. For 1846, '47, 48, '49, and '50, the average of the values was $57,300,000. The real receipts were, therefore, large, being $4,700,000, or 8 per cent. above the average of the five years of which 1848 was the middle one.

If, now, we compare the rule with the facts of the last twenty-five years, the crops were large, according to this definition, in 1827, '30, '31, '40, '43, '45, 48, and 49, and short in 1828, '32, '37, '41, '42, '47, and '50. Of these fifteen years no short crop brought a large value, and only one large one—that of 1831—brought a small value. If we had taken the exports in pounds instead of the crop in bales, there would not have been a single year that the rule would have been found true; so that the only case where the rule appears to hold, in the twenty-five years, occurred when a large crop brought a small price because a great deal of it was retained at home and unsold. In table I., at the end of this article, may be seen all the crops, values, and exports for the twenty-five years, with the average for each, and every one may examine the facts for himself. In 1827 the exports were 5 per cent. above the average, and the money received for them 32 per cent. above. In 1828 the exports were 15 per cent. below, and the value 17 per cent. below. In 1829 the crop was an average one, and so was the cash received for it. In 1830 both were large, and in 1831 both were small. For the six years, from 1832 to 1837, the exports were about an average, but the values were sometimes large and sometimes small. In 1838 and 1839 the amount exported was first large and then small, and both years brought average values. In 1840 it was large, and the money was large. In 1841 and 1842 we had two very short crops succeeding each other, yet the sales of the second year were 12 per cent. lower than the average. In 1843 the exports were large, and the proceeds were within the average limit. From 1844 to 1851 we have had three large crops—1845, '48, and '49—and each of them brought average values. In the same time we had three short crops—1846, '47, and '50; the first brought a small return—the other two were above the average. And thus, for every year in the whole twenty-five, the rule entirely fails, and cannot therefore be regarded as true.

No doubt it sometimes happens that a small crop brings more money than a large one. Thus, in 1847, 1,779,000 bales brought more money than 2,395,000 bales in 1845. But neither year brought large returns—both were an average. The large crop of 1848 brought more money than either; and the very large one of 1849, although it succeeded a large crop, brought still more. The small exports of 1850 were sold for a large amount, but the money received will not exceed the average sales for 1849, 1850, and 1851.

If it be, then, true that short crops are an injury to the planter on account of the diminished amount of money he receives for them, there are other reasons which render the calamity still greater. They stimulate prices to such a high limit that they encourage the production of cotton in India and other places, and thus endanger the monopoly which we now possess of the European market. They discourage the use of cotton in the place of hemp, flax, wool, and silk, and thus put down still further the price of the raw material when favorable seasons have enlarged the supplies. They raise the price of many articles that planters are compelled to buy, and thus lessen the net amount of his income. They increase the price of all kinds of property, so that the gains of the planter with high prices, when invested in anything but money, seldom obtain a larger amount than with low or inordinate prices. They disturb the regular operation of business, tempt the producer to increase his expenditures, to contract debts, to purchase land and negroes on credit, and when the decline comes, as it is sure to do, he is forced to pay for property purchased at high prices, with the sales of his crop at low prices. They lead to the neglect of other products, so that hay is carried from Massachusetts, flour from New-York, corn from Baltimore, bacon from Cincinnati, not only to the seaports of the South, but far into the interior; and when cotton falls, the planter cannot begin at once to supply all his own wants, because he is out of stock from which to raise his hogs, horses, or mules, and some time must elapse before he can obtain them.

These, and many other evils that might be mentioned, show that the interest of the producer is not diverse and opposite to that of the consumer—that the blast and mildew, the drought and the flood, the caterpillar and the boll worm, which reduce the supply and raise the price to the manufacturer, are also an injury to the planter—that favorable seasons—a proper succession of rain and sunshine, are twice-told blessings, both to him that buys, and to him that sells.

While thus short crops are the source of serious evils to the planter, over-production and ruinously low prices are a still greater injury. How can these be prevented? Not by the combination of half a million of planters scattered over a wide extent of country; not by state conventions and paper resolutions; not by monster schemes of monopoly and governmental interference; not by banks or corporations, or factors or brokers forestalling the markets of New-Orleans, New-York, and Liverpool; not by false rumors—by retaining the crop of the country till the season is far advanced—by publishing in the newspapers every disaster from frost or flood, and withholding the reports of abundance and plenty. These plans are all either useless or injurious. Free trade, unshackled industry, is the motto of the South, not only in commerce and manufactures, but in agriculture. Capital is best employed when let alone. The keen-sightedness of self-interest will discern the proper remedy for over-production, and no one need be concerned lest trade should not regulate itself better than he would do it, if he had full power to manage and control it. God is wiser than man, and the laws he has imposed require no aid from us to adjust and adapt them to the circumstances around us. The proper course for the planter, and the one he is sure to pursue, is to make as much cotton as he can, while the price is fair and remunerative. As soon as it falls below this, he should apply both his capital and labor to other pursuits. By the home manufacture of cotton, wool, paper, iron, and machinery; by producing at the South his flour, corn, bacon, mules, and horses; by the increased planting of the sugar-cane and tobacco; by the introduction of new agricultural products; by devoting his capital to the construction of railways and plank-roads; by building ships and steamers to carry on our own trade with the North and with Europe; by importing directly from abroad our foreign supplies, and by sending our cotton directly to European ports, without the tran-shipment at New-York; by these, and many other means, his capital and labor can be diversified and rendered profitable, when the price of cotton will no longer bring fair returns. It is the duty of the intelligent and public-spirited men of the South not to attempt to reverse the laws of trade by forcing up prices to some arbitrary level at which the planter can afford to produce cotton, but to seek out new modes of profitable investment; to undertake new schemes, not yet tried and proved, which promise fair profits to capital; to encourage by words and actions, by legislative enactments, by public and private commendation, every new enterprise calculated to diversify our labor, develop our resources, and divert capital and labor from our great staple.

The prospects of the planter for the present year are by no means gloomy. Though not so bright as last season, they are still cheering and encouraging. Prices have fallen below their average rate; but with our present moderate crop, with low stocks in Europe and America, with food cheap, money abundant, and labor well employed, a low range cannot be maintained. From 1840 to 1851 there have been exported 7,763,000,000 lbs. of cotton, (Table I,) and the value of this has been $617,300,000. If to these we add, as an estimate for the past year, an export of 800,000,000 lbs., at a value of $88,000,000, we shall have 8,563,000,000 lbs., and $705,000,000, which gives an average of about 8¼ cents a pound.

The price in Charleston for good middling is quoted, October 23d, at 7¾ to 7⅞; but so low a rate cannot be maintained—with the present prospect of the supply and the demand.

In South Carolina and Georgia the severe and long-continued drought has cut short the crop very considerably. The rich bottom lands have not indeed suffered. On many plantations partial showers have relieved the general want of rain. The planting has been large; a great many new hands have been employed on the crop; but these favorable circumstances will not make up for the damage by the drought in June and July, by the severe storm on the 24th of August, and by the frost on the 23d of October. The receipts, however, at Charleston and Savannah, will not be much diminished, as the deficiency will be made up in part by the extension of the Georgia rail-roads farther towards the gulf. The decline will not be, probably, far from 10 per cent.

From Florida a slight falling off may be expected. The promise of the crop was very good up to the time of the storm; but the injury caused by it was very serious. The early frost was also injurious; but these causes will both be balanced by the increased planting. A slight decline is anticipated in the receipts, because of the diversion of 10,000 or 15,000 bales to Macon and Savannah, by the opening of the South-Western Rail-road.

From Alabama the promise is much better than last year. The drought was not so severe as in Georgia, and the falling off of the forms, when the late rains set in, was not so extensive. They have had no worm, no floods, no rust. Last year was disastrous; and if the new crop may be compared with that, an increase of 10 per cent. may be looked for.

At New-Orleans the receipts will increase very largely. Already 70,000 bales more have been received there than at the same dates last season. From every part of the immense region that sends its productions to that port, the promise of the crop is much better than last year. In Louisiana and Mississippi the worm has done no damage. On Red River they have escaped the floods which did so much harm in 1849 and in 1850. The early frost in Tennessee, near the close of September, did not do as much harm as the frost on the 6th of October last season. The slight drought, which pervaded the entire region, is the only drawback to a large and full crop. The receipts at New-Orleans, instead of ranging near those of the last two years, will probably come up as high as those of 1848 and 1849. The average of these two years may be taken as the probable receipts of 1852. From Texas an increase may also be expected. If we combine these results, (Table II,) the whole crop for 1852 may be estimated at 2,550,000 bales.

The imports from the East Indies will be much less than for the last two years. These are so much affected by the price at Liverpool, that we may be sure a decline in the shipments will follow a decline in the prices. The actual production in India is very large, compared with the exports; and when the price in England will pay the inland transportation to the seaport and the long voyage round the Cape, a large amount is easily spared for export. The high prices in 1850 raised the English imports from the East Indies up to 308,000 bales, against 182,000 in 1849, and 228,000 in 1848. The present year of high prices witnesses the same increase. The Liverpool receipts on the 3d of October were 164,000 bales against 128,000 bales at the same time in 1850. For the whole year they will reach 350,000 bales for the United Kingdom. For 1852 the decline will be large, but the imports will not probably fall back at once to the figures before 1850. They may be safely estimated at 250,000 bales, (Table III.)

The receipts from Brazil, Egypt, and other places, are small, and nearly stationary. For the last eleven years, the lowest rates were 135,000 bales in 1847, and the highest, 257,000 bales in 1850. The imports into Liverpool have declined from 205,000 bales in 1850, to 138,000 bales in 1851. The average for Great Britain for the last five years, from 1847 to 1851, has been 192,000 bales; and this may be regarded as the probable amount for 1852. (Table IV.)

If the estimated receipts from all these sources be combined, the result for 1852 will be a probable supply of 3,000,000 bales. (Table V.)

The consumption of cotton during the present year has been seriously affected by the high prices. The American manufacturers have closed their mills to a very large extent. The same check has been felt in France. On the rest of the continent the consumption has not receded. In England, the high prices in the early part of the season reduced the purchases of the manufacturers, but since the decline in prices these deliveries have outrun those of last year, and approached those of 1849. (Table VI.) In fact, as there was an error in the estimated consumption of 1849 of fifty or sixty thousand bales, and as the reported deliveries have been, this year, checked by quarterly examinations of the stocks, the demand for the present year has already equaled the very large demand of 1849. For the whole year, the consumption of Great Britain will probably reach 1,600,000 bales, against 1,515,000 in 1850, 1,590,000 in 1849, and 1,464,000 in 1848. Every element of business favors a still larger demand for 1852. Peace everywhere prevails; the harvest has been gathered from South to North, under favorable auspices. The price of wheat is very low—12 or 15 per cent. lower than last year. Money is abundant; the currency is undisturbed; capital is profitably employed; labor is well rewarded; the export trade, as well as the home market, is in a healthy condition; the manufacturers are not overstocked with goods; the price of cotton will be moderate—25 or 30 per cent. lower than last year. Under these circumstances, the English demand for 1852 must exceed that of any former year. It will probably reach 1,650,000 bales—it may be 1,700,000.

From France the prospect is not so promising. Political troubles of a serious character will probably accompany the elections for the next president. If the constitution shall be revised, and a Constituent Assembly called for that purpose, the appeal to first principles, and the entire overturning of all that is now established, will endanger the public peace. If the constitution shall not be revised, the re-election of Louis Napoleon will be a signal for revolution, because it will be done in violation of the law, and of his oath to support the constitution. If some new man is elected, uncertainty and distrust will attend all the operations of business, until his government shall attain stability, and secure the public confidence. We may not, therefore, expect a large consumption for 1852, although the prices of cotton will be moderate. For 1851, the French consumption of American cotton will not vary much from 300,000. We have exported 301,000 bales from the 1st of September, 1850, to the 1st of September, 1851, and the stocks in Havre of American cotton on the 1st of October, were 26,505 bales against 32,274 in 1850—indicating a probable consumption of 307,000 bales. This was a little higher than last year, but much less than for 1849. Our exports to France in 1850 were 289,000 bales; and a decrease of stocks to the amount of 11,000 bales, showed a consumption of 300,000. In 1849, it was 351,000. In 1852, the distrust, on account of political troubles, will probably neutralize the stimulating influence of low or moderate prices, so that we may estimate the probable wants of France at 300,000 bales.

On the continent, the high prices of the last two years have prevented any increase of the consumption, but they have not reduced it below the average of former years. The exports for 1851, from America and England, will not differ much from 550,000 bales. (Table VII.)

This exceeds every former year except 1849, when the crop was very large and prices very low. For 1852, we may confidently expect an increase, unless political troubles started in France, should excite disturbances and revolutions in the neighboring states on the continent.

In our own country, the large decline in the consumption for 1851, is the most remarkable and singular event in the history of our manufactures. Hitherto, from year to year, almost without exception, our progress has been uniformly onward. High prices of the raw material seem never to have affected us. But for the past year our consumption is 83,000 bales below 1850, and 114,000 below 1849. It is lower than in any year since 1845.

If this were attributed to the high prices of last year, it might be hoped that the decline we have now experienced would again start our mills, and revive the demand of our home manufacturers. But it is much to be feared that this is not the case, and that the diminished consumption is due in part to other causes. Among these the tariff of 1846 holds a conspicuous place. The first year after the tariff went into operation, the high price of food in every part of Europe, not only discouraged the foreign manufacturer from entering into competition with us, but, by creating a demand for our breadstuffs abroad, increased our ability to consume all kinds of goods. This home market stimulated the American manufacturer, and the following year our domestic consumption rose from 428,000 to 532,000 bales.

In 1849, the production of foreign looms began to exclude our home-made goods from the market, and the consumption fell off 14,000 bales. The high prices of 1850, gave an increased advantage to the English factories, and the northern manufacturers bought 31,000 bales less than in 1849. The same causes operating for a still longer period in 1851, the American consumption declined still farther, till it had reached the low figure of 404,000 bales.

Another cause that has produced a decided effect is the increase of manufactories in the South and West. These have not only supplied the Southern and Western demand for yarn and the coarser cloths, but have shipped large and increasing amounts of yarn to the New-York and Philadelphia markets. The high prices of the last year have not, to any considerable extent, checked this consumption. The estimate in the *New-York Shipping List*, of a decline from 110,000 bales to 75,000, appears to be entirely too large. Instead of a decline in Georgia from 20,500 bales to 13,000, there has been probably an increase, on account of the starting of new factories. So also in South Carolina and Alabama. The products of the southern and western mills being consumed principally at home, where general prosperity has not checked the demand, the sales of goods have not been materially reduced. The shipments to the North have been almost as brisk as ever. The coarse yarns can be made as cheap at the South as at the North, and the cost of transportation gives the South the advantage.

These two reasons will help to explain the check given to northern consumption. The low or moderate prices of the coming year will probably set to work more or less of these mills, because when the raw material is low, the advantage of the American manufacturer over the English in the cost of transportation is much increased. The demand at the North will not, however, reach the amount of 1850 or 1849, but it will probably exceed that of 1851 by 40,000 or 50,000 bales. (Table VIII.)

If these estimates for the consumption of 1852 be combined, the result will be a demand for 3,000,000 bales. (Table IX.) As this is equal to the probable supply, (Table V.,) the question of price will be much affected by the stocks. These are now lower than they have been for the two preceding years, (Table X.,) although the last crop of the United States, and the receipts from India, have very much increased over the amounts of 1850.

It would seem, therefore, very improbable that prices can be kept down below their average. In the first half of the last year, from September, 1850, to February, 1851, the price of good middling in New-Orleans, ranged from 13 to 13½ c. From March to August it has regularly declined, being quoted successively, on the 1st of each month, 10¾, 11¼, 10½, 9½, 9½, and 8¼ c., and now (October 29th) it is still lower, being quoted at Charleston, October 23d, at 7¾ to 7⅞ c. The probable supply is not above the probable wants of the world, and with low stocks the present low range of prices cannot be maintained. The crop is large, and can only be consumed at an average moderate price, and this much may with confidence be anticipated.

TABLE I.

UNITED STATES CROP—VALUE AND AMOUNT OF UNITED STATES EXPORTS.

Years.	U. States crop.	Average.	Large or small.	Value of exports.	Average	Exports in lbs.	Average
1827....	757,000	713,000	Large.....	$29,400,000	$28,000,000	294,000,000	223,000,000
1828....	721,000	807,000	Small.....	22,500,000	26,600,000	211,000,000	255,000,000
1829....	858,000	871,000	Average...	26,600,000	26,700,000	265,000,000	269,000,000
1830....	979,000	917,000	Large.....	29,700,000	27,200,000	298,000,000	275,000,000
1831....	1,039,000	987,000	Large.....	25,300,000	29,900,000	277,000,000	297,000,000
1832....	987,000	1,056,000	Small.....	31,700,000	34.500,000	322,000,000	321,000,000
1833....	1,070,000	1,111,000	Average..	36,200,000	41,600,000	325,000,000	339,000,000
1834....	1,205,000	1,175,000	Average...	49,500,000	50,800,000	385,000,000	369 000,000
1835....	1,254,000	1,262,000	Average...	65,000,000	57,000,000	387,000,000	393,000,000
1836....	1,361,000	1,409,000	Average ..	71,300,000	62,100,000	424,000,000	447,000,000
1837....	1,423,000	1,540,000	Small.....	63,200,000	64,400,000	444,000,000	453,000,000
1838....	1,801,000	1,725,000	Average...	61,600,000	64,200,000	596,000,000	524,000,000
1839....	1,861,000	1,780,000	Average...	61,200,000	60,800,000	414,000,000	546,000,000
1840....	2,178,000	1,832,000	Large.....	63,900,000	57,700,000	744,000,000	574,000.000
1841....	1,635,000	1,947,000	Small.....	54,300,000	55,200,000	530,000,000	618,000,000
1842....	1,683,000	1,981,000	Small......	47,600,000	53,800,000	585,000,000	668,000,000
1843....	2,379,000	2,024,000	Large.....	49,100,000	51,400,000	817,000,000	694,000,000
1844....	2,030,000	2,117,000	Average...	54,100,000	49,100,000	664,000,000	697,000,000
1845....	2,395,000	2,136,000	Large.....	51,700,000	50,200,000	873,000,000	686,000,000
1846....	2,100,000	2.130 000	Average...	42,800,000	52,800,000	548,000,000	685,000,000
1847....	1,779,000	2,270,000	Small.....	53,400,000	55,300,000	527,000,000	757,000,000
1848....	2,348,000	2,211,000	Large.....	62,000,000	59,300,000	814,000,000	709,000,000
1849....	2,729,000	2,258 000	Large.....	66,400,000	66,800,000	1,026,000,000	825,000,000
1850....	2,098,000	2,394,000	Small.....	72,000,000	—	635,000,000	—
1851....	2,355,000	2.355,000	Average...	—	—	—	—

TABLE II.

CROP OF THE UNITED STATES.

	RECEIPTS.								ESTIMATE.
	1848.		1849.		1850.		1851.		1852.
Texas......bales	40,000	..	39,000	..	31,000	..	46,000	..	50,000
New-Orleans....	1,191,000	..	1,094,000	..	782,000	..	933,000	..	1,150,000
Mobile..........	436,000	..	519,000	..	351,000	..	452,000	..	500,000
Florida....	154,000	..	200,000	..	181,000	..	181,000	..	170,000
Georgia....	255,000	..	391,000	..	344,000	..	322,000	..	300,000
South Carolina...	262,000	..	458,000	..	384,000	..	387,000	..	350,000
Other places....	10,000	..	28,000	..	24,000	..	34,000	..	30,000
Total....	2,348,000	..	2,729,000	..	2,097,000	..	2,355,000	..	2,550,000

TABLE III.

ENGLISH IMPORTS FROM THE EAST INDIES.

	Bales.		Remarks.
1830 to 1834, average	81,000	....	Low prices.
1835 to 1839, "	144,000	....	High prices,
1840 to 1844, "	232,000	....	Chinese war.
1844 to 1849, "	177,000	....	Peace, and low prices,
1848, October 6, Liverpool	93,000	....	Moderate prices.
1849, " 5, "	69,000	....	Low prices.
1850, " 4, "	128,000	....	High prices,
1851, " 3, "	164,000	....	High prices.
1848, whole year, Great Britain.	228,000	....	Moderate prices.
1849, " " " "	182,000	....	Low prices.
1850, " " " "	308,000	....	High prices.
1851, " " estimate	350,000	....	High prices.
1852, " " "	250,000	....	Moderate prices.

TABLE IV.

ENGLISH IMPORTS FROM BRAZIL, EGYPT, ETC.

Years.	About the 1st Oct. Liverpool.	Whole y'r for G. Britain.	Years.	About the 1st Oct. Liverpool.	Whole y'r for G. Brita in
1846.. ..bales..	121,000	155,000	1849.. ..bales..	178,000	245,000
1847	75,000	135,000	1850	205,000	252,000
1848	94,000	137,000	1851	138,000	190,000

TABLE V.

SUPPLY OF 1850, AND ESTIMATE FOR 1851 AND 1852.

	1850.	1851.	1852.
Crop of the United States.......bales	2,097,000	2,355,000	2,550,000
English imports from East Indies	308,000	350,000	250,000
English receipts from other places	252 000	195,000	200,000
Total from these sources	2.657,000	2,900,000	3,000,000

TABLE VI.

DELIVERIES TO THE TRADE AT LIVERPOOL.

	1849.	1850.	Consumption each week.	1851.	Consum'a each w'k.
May 9........bales....	562,000	501,000	27,833	453,000	25,167
June 5	688,000	637,000	28,045	619,000	28,136
July 3	835,000	742,000	28,538	744,000	28,615
August 1	993,000	883,000	29,433	887,000	29,567
September 5.	1,141,000	981,000	28,028	1,058,000	30,228
October 3	1,220,000	1,086,001	27,850	1,167,000	29,923
October 10	1,287,000	1,116,000	27,900	—	—
Whole year	1,467,000	1,407,000	27,052	1,500,000	29,000

TABLE VII.

CONSUMPTION ON THE CONTINENT—NOT INCLUDING FRANCE—OF COTTON RECEIVED FROM AMERICA.

	Exports from United State.	Exports from Great Britain.	Increase of stock.	Decrease of stocks.	Consumption.
1846	205,000	194,000	—	53,000	452,000
1847	169,000	215,000	48,000	—	341,000
1848	255,000	192,000	—	29,000	476,000
1849	322,000	254,000	—	20,000	596,000
1850	194,000	272,000	—	—	466,000
1851	265,000	285,000	—	—	550,000
1846 to 1848, average	210,000	200,000	—	—	423,000
1849 to 1851, "	260,000	270,000	—	—	537,000

TABLE VIII.

AMERICAN CONSUMPTION.

	North of Richmond.	Average for three years.	Increase per cent.	South of Richmond.	Total.
1844 bales	347,000	313,000	17 Increase.	60,000	407,000
1845	389,000	347,000	11 "	65,000	454,000
1846	423,000	386,000	11 "	70,000	493,000
1847	428,000	413,000	7 "	80,000	508,000
1848	532,000	461,000	12 "	90,000	622,000
1849	518,000	493,000	7 "	100,000	618,000
1850	487,000	512,000	4 "	110,000	597,000
1851	404,000	470,000	8 Decrease.	100,000	504,000

TABLE IX.

CONSUMPTION OF EUROPE AND AMERICA.

	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.
Great Britain, of all kinds	1,588,000	1,515,000	1,600,000	1,650,000
United States	518,000	487,000	404,000	450,000
France, of American cotton	351,000	301,000	310,000	300,000
The rest of the continent	596,000	466,000	550,000	600,000
Total	3,053,000	2,769,000	2,864,000	3,000,000

TABLE X.

STOCKS AT RECENT DATES.

	1849.	1850.	1851.
Liverpool, October 10	582,000	545,000	549,000
Havre, October 1	45,000	32,000	36,000
United States, September 1	155,000	168,000	128,000
Total	782,000	745,000	712,000

2.—DATES AT THE SOUTH.

A CURIOSITY.—The Savannah Georgian of a late date notices the receipt of beautiful specimens of the *Date* grown by Mr. William Audley Couper, on his place upon St. Simon's Island, Glynn county, Georgia, and which is believed to be one of the first instances in which this fruit has been grown in perfection in this country. The Georgian says:—

> The tree bore fruit this year for the first time, and has six or seven bunches, similar to the one now to be seen at our office. Mr. Couper has a number of other trees, but none so old as the one now bearing. The *palm tree* which bears the date does not usually bear fruit under the age of thirty years, and it is said that they bear seventy years before they begin to decline. As an article of commerce, the date made into a paste called *adjoue*, for export, and the oil manufactured and known as palm oil, form a considerable and valuable article for export. The import of the oil alone into Great Britain in 1832 amounted to upwards of one and a half million of dollars. Why we may not in time raise the date as an article of consumption and export, in the southern part of the United States, Georgia and Florida particularly, will be only because we are too much wedded to the *one idea* of raising cotton.

3.—THE FAIR AT MACON, GEORGIA.

To those of our readers who were not permitted to be present and witness for themselves, we feel that it is due, as well as to the occasion, to give some brief account of this great anniversary. It is estimated that there were in attendance at least fifteen thousand persons, from almost every part of Georgia, and a very large number from Alabama and Florida, and a few from the different states, ranging from Virginia to Texas. It was an interesting spectacle to see the vast multitude who had come up to witness and do honor to the cause of Agriculture, the mechanical and manufacturing skill, of the South. And who that was there, did not feel that his patriotism was stirred, and flattered, too, by the exhibition? Who, that did not feel elated at the thought, that so many witnesses had been congregated to see these unmistakable testimonials of our onward advancement in all the essentials of true greatness? Adopting the language of an old and distinguished citizen, we were "proud of our country." It was not to be expected that we should assemble so many persons, or exhibit so large or so varied a number of articles, as might be found in older and more densely populated countries, enjoying greater facilities for travel and transportation; and these considerations are, of course, to be taken into account, in making up the estimate of our success. Yet, in some things, we might safely challenge competition with the world. It is extremely doubtful whether the steam engine manufactured at Montgomery, Alabama, and exhibited on this occasion, would not bear favorable comparison with the best work of the best establishments in the Union; and, besides this, there were two more, made in our own state, reflecting great credit upon their manufacturers, and each receiving from the committee of examination high premiums. We speak of them with more pleasure, because of the complication of their structure, and their importance to manufacturing, mechanical and agricultural interests. They are corner stones upon which we can build, and motive powers which put us upon a footing with the balance of the world. Near by, were piled up the cotton bales, entered, also, for premiums, suggesting the thought that here were in close contiguity two of the elements of power, which, if properly united, might make John Bull tremble, and amaze some of our Cousin Jonathans terribly one of these days.

And here, too, were to be seen fine specimens of the cotton gin, each claiming pre-eminence in the skill and facility of separating the seed from the fibre, and turning it over into the manufacturer's hands in best order; and, although great merit was due to all, to our townsmen, E. T. Taylor & Co., was awarded the honor of the first premium; and near by, was the press for baling after it was ginned; and then came Brown's straw cutter; Jefferson's splendid collection of buckets, churns and chairs, from the Troy manufactory; beautiful specimens of cabinet work; several splendid buggies and harness; shoes; stoves for the parlor and for cooking; grates; fine specimens of iron from the Etowah Iron Works; a fine collection of plantation implements, double and single horse plows, sub-soilers, cultivators, harrows, drillers, scrapers; horse and hand mills; shellers and threshers; a beautiful specimen of salt, corn, wheat, and very fine flour, with many other articles which we cannot now enumerate—all products of southern soil, labor and skill. Then came the cattle, a very creditable exhibition of blooded, grades, and natives. Some fine Devons were exhibited by Messrs. R. Peters, and J. V. and J. B. Jones, to whom the country is much indebted for improvements in the stock department, and who received merited testimonials at the hands of the several committees for what they had already done; and we feel assured that these are but the beginnings of still larger improvements for the future. There were several cows of the native breeds, which were most extraordinary milkers—one of which is reported to have given nineteen quarts of milk at a single milking. This shows very conclusively, that, with proper treatment, some cows may be found this side of the Atlantic, and this side of the North, also, which will do for us all that we could wish or hope for from importations. We make these remarks, not to discourage importations, or the procurement of blooded stock. We think this is all well, and that much good will result from it; but we would have our people know, that blood does not make milk; and without proper treatment, these fine imported stocks will not do; and with it, we have many natives which would give fine returns. Our next visit was to the stalls intended for swine. The committee of arrangements seemed to have over-estimated in this department, as this was about the only uncrowded place, either in the city or on the show ground. This was a poor show; and if it is a fair index, we think our Tennessee and Kentucky friends will have some pretty large bills to be footed up in Georgia, this winter. But, with bacon at fifteen cents, to be paid for with cotton at five, we leave the hog to plead his own cause.

The number of mules exhibited was not large, but the specimens very fine; some of them of very extraordinary size and form; and the only drawback upon our pride was, the apprehension that few of them were native Georgians. Some of them, however, could claim nativity, and served to demonstrate the practicability of as perfect success here as in Kentucky.

Four very superior Jacks, recently imported, were on the ground, and are now in different parts of the state; and we hope these demonstrations of success will be less rare at each subsequent anniversary. A very little effort in this department, would greatly lessen the annual draws upon the income of southern planters. A splendid and very capacious ring for the exhibition of horses, was provided, and this constituted a very exciting and attractive part of the show. The parade of stallions, brood mares and colts, saddle and harness horses, seemed to us to be very fine, and to sustain well this part of the exhibition. There was also a good turn out of sheep; some fine improvements upon the common stock. Some very pretty South Downs and other varieties. Governor Troup, as a testimonial of his good will, sent up a lot of fifty beautiful natives. But, perhaps, the most wonderful display, and one which most of all others surprised and attracted the crowd, was in the poultry exhibition. A very spirited contest had sprung up between several gentlemen, and we hazard nothing in saying that we think it has not been equaled more than once in any exhibition in the United States. Here were more than seventy varieties of chickens. Red, black, and yellow Shanghai, Dorkings, Black Polands, Spangled Hamburg, Golden Top Knot, Bantams, Cochin China, Black Spanish, Malays, Wild Indian, &c.; Bremen, Westphalia, and several varieties of Chinese Geese; Poland Top Knot, Aylesbury, Rowen, and several other varieties of ducks, turkeys, and twelve distinct varieties of carrier and other pigeons.

The country is very much indebted to the Executive Committee, and Colonel Washington, the Mayor of the city, for the fidelity with which their duties have been discharged, and the fine taste and good judgment displayed in all their arrangements.

The grounds for this fair were well selected, and beautifully enclosed and laid out, with appropriate houses, sheds, stands, &c., all at the expense of the city of Macon. This munificence reflects great credit upon the public-spirited Mayor and Council, and the citizens generally, and we hope that they may have received their reward. Many distinguished visitors from other states were there, but none so noted or honored on this occasion, as Edmund Ruffin, of Virginia, the veteran defender and expounder of the interests of agriculture. He was both surprised and delighted at our exhibition, and thinks the resources of Georgia unsurpassed by any state of the Union; and says, "he would not want a better fortune than he could make *in the rotten limestone, pine wood regions of our state.*" These are words of comfort, emanating from such a source. We trust that the visits of Mr. Ruffin may often be repeated, that we may be cheered by his presence, and instructed by his counsels.

Of the address of Judge Andrews, we will not now speak, further than to invite all to a careful and studied perusal, when it shall be published, with the assurance that they will be amply repaid.

Complaints have been made, and some persons have doubtless felt themselves aggrieved, at the seeming neglect of articles presented for exhibition. After the show is all over, it is an easy matter to point out errors and mistakes, and say how things could have been better managed, and the committee themselves thus see this as plainly as other people. We are but learning by experience how we may improve, and it would be much more appropriate, that we should look at the bright side of the picture, and rejoice that we are able to do so well, rather than indulge a spirit of complaint at defects which have been comparatively small, and most of which could not be foreseen. The executive committee left their homes and convened in Macon, nearly three months before the fair—and after proper deliberation and consultation, appointed large and appropriate committees to decide upon the merits of all such articles as might be presented. They could not know that these would all attend, nor had they any power to compel their attendance. Very many of those thus appointed failed to appear and act. In the emergency, and amidst the press of other engagements, these vacancies had to be filled; and it would be rather wonderful if these appointments were all judiciously made. And supposing they were well made, it was often difficult to say, just where one committee's duties ended and another's began, with such a multitude of articles so nearly allied in their classifications, and so much to do, and so little time in which to do it. We repeat, again, that we ought rather to rejoice at our success than mar a picture so beautiful, and so much admired, by complainings.—*Soil of the South.*

4.—COTTON EXPORTS FROM NEW-ORLEANS.

We have been politely furnished by our friends, Messrs. J. P. Whitney & Co., with an interesting table showing the average weight per bale of all cotton shipped through their house, as shipping agents, for each month in the year, from September to September, and for the past five years. Also the average weight of their whole shipments for each year, and, still further, the proportionate average to each country. Thus having the most reliable data for the weight, and taking our own records for the number of bales, we are enabled to compile the following, which may be found interesting to parties in the cotton trade.

Total Exports of Cotton from the Port of New-Orleans, from August 31*st*, 1850, *to August* 31*st*, 1851—997,458 *bales distributed as follows:*

	Bales.	Average weight.	Pounds.
Great Britain	582,373	444½	258,864,798
France	130,362	444	57,880,728
North of Europe	47,786	435	20,786,910
South of Europe	84,120	445	37,443,400
Total foreign	844,641		374,975,836
Coastwise	152,817	432	66,016,944
Grand total	997,458		440,992,780

The total exports from this port to all foreign ports, for the government fiscal year, viz.—from June 30th, 1850, to June 30th, 1851, were 865,860 bales, averaging 448 pounds per bale, which would give an aggregate of 387,905,280 pounds, valued, per Custom House records, at $45,330,084, or about $52 50 per bale.

5.—DOMESTIC WINE.

A recent letter from Cincinnati gives the following account of wine-making at that place:

I have just returned from a visit to one of N. Longworth's wine cellars, where I saw 75,000 bottles of sparkling Catawba, and about 40,000 gallons of wine in casks, varying from 40 to 5000 gallons in each. This cellar is 120 feet long, 40 feet wide, and 40 feet deep; and it is the intention of the owner to increase it to double this size during the coming spring. Besides Mr. Longworth, there are many other persons in Cincinnati, and the neighborhood, engaged in the cultivation of the grape, and it is supposed that not less than 1000 acres are devoted to the purpose. The Catawba grape is, I believe, much preferred to any other variety for wine, and invariably ripens better than the Isabella in this climate.

It is stated that, at the recent fair of the Richmond County Long Island Agricultural Society, some samples of wine, four years old, made from grapes grown on the island, were pronounced by competent judges superior to any American wine yet offered to the public. It had a distinct and peculiar flavor, unlike any foreign wine, but nearest a light hock. The best of it was said to be a pure juice of the Muscadine grape.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—IMPORTS AT NEW-ORLEANS, FROM THE INTERIOR, FOR THE YEAR ENDING 31st OF AUGUST, 1851.

	ARTICLES.	1850–'51.	ARTICLES.	1850–'51.
	Apples, barrels	54808	Iron, Pig, tons	152
	Bacon, assorted casks, &c.	48602	Lard, hhds	—
	Bacon, bbls and boxes	9274	Lard, tcs. and bbls	115570
	Bacon Hams, hogsheads	44478	Lard, kegs	151931
	Bacon, in bulk, lbs	235000	Lime, western, barrels	37738
	Bagging, pieces	72304	Lead, pigs	325505
	Bale Rope, coils	107224	Lead, bar, kegs	629
	Beans, barrels	4236	Lead, white	1930
	Butter, kegs	54967	Molasses, barrels	184483
	Butter, barrels	2720	Oats, bbls. and sacks	479741
	Beeswax, bbls	230	Onions, barrels	14297
	Beef, bbls. and tierces	48066	Oil, Linseed,	478
	Beef, dried, lbs	15300	Oil, Castor, bbls	4145
	Buffalo Robes, packs	155	Oil, Lard,	17157
COTTON.	La and Mi., bales,	618156	Pickles, kegs and bbls	893
	Lake	14399	Potatoes, bbls	192922
	N. Ala. and Ten	236821	Pork, tcs. and bbls	286084
	Arkansas	62793	Pork, boxes	1980
	Montgomery, &c	18051	Pork, hhds	1231
	Mobile	24473	Pork, in bulk, lbs	10513895
	Florida	11091	Porter and Ale, barrels	384
	Texas	9252	Packing Yarn, reels	4190
	Corn Meal, barrels	3662	Skins, Deer, packs	1119
	Corn, in ears	42526	Shot, kegs	2044
	Corn, shelled, sacks	1299932	Sugar, hogsheads	125755
	Cheese, boxes	78894	Sugar, barrels	18675
	Candles, boxes	80748	Soap, boxes	9484
	Cider, barrels	245	Shingles	50000
	Coal, western	700000	Staves	9000000
	Dried Peaches	2685	Tallow, barrels	6164
	Dried Apples	4168	Tobacco, leaf, hogsheads	64030
	Flaxseed, tierces	204	Tobacco, chew, kegs	4115
	Flour, barrels	941106	Tobacco, bales	220
	Furs, hhds. bxs. and bdls	1289	Twine, bundles	3156
	Feathers, bags	3645	Whiskey, barrels	157741
	Hemp, bales	25116	Window Glass, boxes	16498
	Hides	140338	Wheat, bbls. and sacks	86797
	Hay, bales	46281		

2.—SOUTHERN FOREIGN COMMERCE.

We have noticed with pleasure the advent of every new enterprise of genuine promise at the South. We have long believed that she has not made that judicious use of the talents entrusted to her care which her advantages afford, and which her necessities require. With a climate and soil the choicest of the earth, it should be the home, not of hospitality only, but of industry, capital and power. A change has begun to come over the spirit of her dreams. The swaddling clothes of the infant are about being torn asunder, and a new being will stand erect, conscious of its own power, and with the *toga virilis* of true dignity and strength. We congratulate the South upon her emancipation from the fetters of old usages and slumbering energies.

We have already spoken of the brilliant progress the South is making in the department of manufactures. Every paper we receive adds fresh evidences of the fact. The spirit of enterprise and progress which is rife in their midst, is not confined to one section, nor do the illustrations of its efficiency belong to one class of objects. The spirit of enterprise is eminently contagious. Activity begets activity, and energies well spent engender new elements of progress. This fact is fully corroborated by the simultaneousness with which the southern states have commenced their march of improvement. The erection of manufactories, the application of labor to capital in new forms, has called into requisition larger and more profitable systems of artificial intercommunication. Thus rail-roads and manufactures have gone hand in hand, increasing the necessities of the existence of each other, and contributing to their mutual success.

Next to the above two features of her industrial progress, we regard the attempt now being made to establish direct trade with Europe as freighted with the most incalculable advantages and enduring results. We would prefer not to see its success jeopardized by involving it with questions of sectional concern or political intrigue. Let it stand out by itself alone, towering high above all other interests. Let its consequences be calculated, and its influence measured. Let antagonistic feelings be compromised, and their united efforts will succeed in perfecting a great and magnificent work. The position which the South is fast acquiring demands it. The benefits which would accrue from its establishment would be immediate as well as lasting.

The great States of South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama and Tennessee, bound together as they soon will be by their rail-roads, possess within themselves elements which will secure the accomplishment of almost any object. Their resources are exhaustless, and the results of their labor abundant. Already they supply the markets of the world with the great staple of cotton. The products of their fields will bring remunerative prices at all times, if sent to the proper markets. Heretofore they have been content to dispose of them in such a manner as they could without any effort on their part. They have most usually passed through a long and irregular circuit in finding a market for consumption. Their cotton, their rice, and their sugar, which find their consumers on the continent, pass first to Savannah, or Mobile, or New-Orleans; thence to New-York, or Boston, or Baltimore; thence to Liverpool, and from that great storehouse of the world, they are distributed throughout Europe. The process through which these valuable commodities are thus compelled to pass is unnatural and expensive. Three or four shipments are made when one at least would suffice. The reductions in commissions, insurance and freight which direct transportation would effect, would make these necessaries not only cheaper to the consumer, but more profitable to the producer.

In the single article of cotton, the markets of the Continent, which should be supplied *directly* from the southern ports, receive more than half the quantity consumed from Great Britain, which is annually held back in the monster warehouses of Liverpool. With immense capital upon which to operate, they guide and control the markets. They dictate terms not only to this country, but to the whole of Europe. The quantity supplied directly by the United States and by Great Britain respectively for consumption on the Continent, is thus summed up in bales:

	Exports from United States.	Exports from Great Britain.
1846	205,000	194,000
1847	169,000	215,000
1848	255,000	192,000
1849	322,000	254,000
1850	194,000	282,000
1851	265,000	285,000

This should not be so. It is for the interest of both producer and consumer that they should be brought more closely and more directly together; they should understand and appreciate the wants of each other. In order to secure these important objects, such intermediate agents should be dispensed with. The markets of Great Britain, and her markets *alone*, should be supplied directly from the southern ports. The markets of Germany, France, and the interior states of Europe, should receive their supply directly from Charleston, Savannah, or Mobile, as the case may be, in the ports of Amsterdam, Hamburg, Bremen or Havre. Our own coasting trade would supply the markets of New-England, and the Atlantic States generally.

Thus the influences of commerce would be more widely diffused, the articles of manufacture cheapened, and the processes of labor diversified. The interchange of commodities would be more common, and the comforts of life more wide spread. The commercial cities of the South would spring into new life, and diffuse some of the vigor of their growth into the sections adjacent. New avenues to wealth and enterprise would be continually unfolding themselves. Nor would these evidences of prosperity be regarded with jealousy by the cities of the North. They, too, would share in the general increase of trade. There would be a more equal distribution of power and capital and wealth. And as commerce is liberal in the influence which it exerts, and cosmopolitan in its nature, it would banish from all our minds sectional feelings and geographical distinctions. The closer we draw the links of trade among ourselves and with other nations, the more improbable do we render the chances of collision, and the mutual interchange of products will lead to a reciprocation of courtesies that will finally bind all nations in a common brotherhood.—*Dry Goods Reporter.*

3.—BANKING IN THE GREAT CITIES.

The following table will show the business of the largest bank in the city of Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Charleston and New-Orleans, at recent dates:

	Bank of Charleston.	Bank of Commerce, New-York.	Merchants' Bank, Boston.	Bank of Pennsylvania.	Bank of Louisiana.
Capital	3,160,000	4,564,000	3,000,000	1,875,000	3,992,000
Circulation	3,300,000	7,000	700,000	460,000	1,218,000
Bank balances	2,348,000	114,000	1,040,000	560,000	268,000
Deposits	693,000	2,516,000	740,000	1,232,000	2,170,000
Loans	6,000,000	7,922,000	4,826,000	3,083,000	1,580,000
Coin	600,000	409,000	372,000	548,000	2,500,000

It may be proper to remark, that there are other banks in these cities that do nearly as much business as those above specified. The Bank of Charleston has probably the largest circulation of any single institution in the country. The largest circulation in New-York is that of the Bank of New-York, $456,000. In Pennsylvania, the Lancaster Bank, $577,000. In Massachusetts, the Merchants' Bank, $700,000. In New-Orleans, the Louisiana State Bank, $2,058,000.

In deposits for other institutions, the Merchants' Bank of New-York has the largest share, viz.: $2,400,000; but there are three others in the same city with balances above $2,000,000 each. In Boston, the Suffolk Bank, $2,000,000. In Philadelphia, the Philadelphia Bank, $1,028,000.

In individual deposits, the heaviest amount is in the American Exchange Bank, New-York, $3,055,000, and Merchants' Bank, $3,041,000. In Boston, the Merchants' Bank, $855,000. In New-Orleans, the Louisiana State Bank, $2,900,000. In Charleston, the Bank of Charleston, $690,000; Bank of the State of South Carolina, $620,000. Some few institutions have a constant line of deposits above their capital, viz.: Bank of America, New-York; Bank of New-York, 140 per cent.; Butchers and Drovers' Bank, 100 per cent.; City Bank, New-York, and Mechanics' Bank, 150 per cent.; Leather Manufacturers' Bank, 133 per cent.; Merchants' Bank, 200 per cent.; Phœnix Bank, 160 per cent.; Tradesmans' Bank, 150 per cent.; Union Bank, 200 per cent.; American Exchange Bank, 200 per cent.; Bowery Bank, 300 per cent.; Broadway Bank, 160 per cent.; Chemical Bank, 367 per cent.; Fulton Bank, 170 per cent.; Mechanics' Banking Association, 150 per cent.; North River Bank, 150 per cent.

In Boston, there is not a single instance of this kind; the banks being by law confined to 100 per cent. beyond their capital in their aggregate liabilities. In New-York city, the individual deposits in banks exceed their capital 25 per cent. In Boston they are 75 per cent. less; in Philadelphia, 33 per cent. more. In the latter city the deposits in twelve of the banks largely exceed their capital. In New-Orleans the deposits are as large as in Boston, but are only 50 per cent. of the bank capital. In Baltimore, the individual deposits of three only of their banks exceed their capital.

In the item of loans it will be found that the largest sum is that of the Bank of Commerce, New-York, $7,900,000; Bank of Charleston, $6,000,000; Merchants' Bank, Boston, $4,900,000. In New-York, there are three banks with loans above $4,000,000; five above $3,000,000; and three above $2,000,000.

In the item of coin, the New-Orleans banks are more strongly fortified; their five banks having ordinarily $7,000,000, the largest amount of which is in the Bank of Louisiana, $2,900,000. In New-York, the Bank of America, $1,051,000; Bank of New-York, $1,008,000; the Philadelphia Bank, $665,000; the Suffolk Bank, Boston, $420,000.

The heaviest business in proportion to capital is that of the Commercial Bank of Cincinnati, viz.: capital $50,000; circulation, $49,000; individual deposits, $397,000; loans, $406,000.

Few moneyed institutions show the uniform management of the Bank of Baltimore. The bank commenced business, January 2, 1797, and has had no interruption to its semi-annual dividends from that period to the present, nearly fifty-five years. Its first cashier was elected in 1796, and held office until June, 1841, when his successor (and present incumbent) was elected. Another remarkable feature in the history of that bank is, that the three presidents of the institution, from 1796 to 1841, were members of the first board of directors.—*Bankers' Mag.*

4.—THE PRECIOUS METALS.

We extract the following from the Journal of Commerce:

"It is difficult to realize at first thought the great accession to our metallic currency, since the discovery of gold in California. When the first few thousand dollars of the glittering dust were landed here from the Pacific coast, the whole city was excited, and specimens were everywhere objects of great curiosity. It is hardly three years since, and yet semi-monthly arrivals are now regularly bringing us at the rate of fifty millions per annum, and we receive it all as a matter of course, scarcely asking what effect it is likely to have upon the wealth and prosperity of the nation. Various estimates have been made upon the entire production of the California gold regions, and we have several times prepared tables in which the amount was given as far as it could be ascertained. For many of our items, however, we have been obliged to take estimates in the place of official returns, as the latter were frequently wanting, or so published as to be unreliable. We have been for some time preparing tables which should give the receipts at all of the mints down to a given point, from which our readers could begin, and complete the record for themselves. The monthly statements, hastily made up, of the deposits of gold at the mint, must of course be partially estimated, as a large quantity is continually under the process of assay, and its exact value can only be determined when the work is complete. In the statements annexed the figures are official, and can be relied on as strictly correct. For this, as well as our former table, we are much indebted to the courtesy of Robert Patterson, Esq., of Philadelphia, son of the late Director of the Mint:

"The following statement embraces the total coinage of gold, silver, and copper at the mint and branches from its organization to the 1st instant. The coinage at the Philadelphia mint was commenced in 1793; at the branches in 1838. The Dahlonega (Georgia) and Charlotte (North Carolina) mints issue only gold coins; and the New-Orleans only gold and silver; all of the copper coins are struck at Philadelphia. The table also includes a statement of the total deposits at the mint of gold produced from California and other sources within the limits of the United States:

I.—*Statement of the Coinage of the Mints of the United States, from their organization to September* 30, 1851.

PHILADELPHIA MINT.

PERIODS.	Gold.	Silver.	Copper.	Total Coinage.
To the close of 1847	$52,741,350 00	$62,748,211 90	$1,145,591 21	$116,635,153 11
Year 1848	2,780,930 00	420,050 00	64,157 99	3,265,137 99
1849	7,948,332 00	922,950 00	41,984 32	8,913,266 32
1850	27,756,445 50	409,600 00	44,467 50	28,210,513 00
Nine months, 1851	35,426,513 00	283,874 00	85,442 43	35,795,829 43
Totals	126,653,570 50	64,784,685 90	1,381,643 45	192,819,899 85

NEW-ORLEANS MINT.

PERIODS.	Gold.	Silver.	Total Coinage.
To the close of 1847	$15,189,365 00	$8,418,700 00	$23,608,065 00
Year 1848	358,500 00	1,620,000 00	1,978,500 00
1849	454,000 00	1,192,000 00	1,646,000 00
1850	3,619,000 00	1,456,500 00	5,075,500 00
Nine months, 1851	7,500,000 00	206,000 00	7,706,000 00
Totals	27,120,865 00	12,893,200 00	40,014,065 00

	CHARLOTTE MINT.	DAHLONEGA MINT.	AT ALL THE MINTS.
PERIODS.	Gold.	Gold.	Gold, silver & copper.
To the close of 1847	$1,656,060 00	$3,218,017 50	$145,117,295 61
Year 1848	364,330 00	271,752 50	5,879,720 49
1849	361,299 00	244,130 50	11,164,695 82
1850	347,791 00	258,502 00	33,892,306 00
Nine months, 1851	217,934 50	190,152 00	43,909,915 93
Totals	2,947,414 50	4,182,554 50	239,963,933 85

II.—*Statement of the amount of Gold, of domestic production, deposited at the Mints to September 30, 1851.*

PERIODS.	PHILADELPHIA MINT.			NEW-ORLEANS MINT.		
	From California.	Other sources.	Total.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847.	—	$7,797,141	$7,797,141	—	$119,699	$119,699
Year 1848.........	$44,177	197,367	241,544	$1,124	11,469	12,593
1849.........	5,481,439	285,653	5,767,092	669,921	7,268	677,189
1850.........	31,667,505	122,801	31,790,306	4,575,567	4,454	4,580,021
Nine months, 1851.	31,300,105	98,340	31,398,445	6,310,462	885	6,311,347
Totals..........	$68,493,226	8,501,302	76,994,528	11,557,074	143,775	11,700,849

PERIODS.	CHARLOTTE MINT.			DAHLONEGA MINT.		
	From Calif'na.	Other sources.	Total.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847	—	$1,673,718	$1,673,718	—	$3,218,017	$3,218,017
Year 1848........	—	370,785	370,785	—	271,753	271,753
1849........	—	390,732	390,732	—	244,131	244,131
1850........	—	320,289	320,289	$30,025	217,673	247,698
Nine months, 1851.	$12,805	202,256	215,061	70,925	129,376	200,301
Totals..........	12,805	2,957,780	2,970,585	100,950	4,080,950	4,181,900

AT ALL THE MINTS.

PERIODS.	From California.	Other sources.	Total.
To the close of 1847....	—	........$12,808,575	........$12,808,575
Year 1848..............	.... $45,301	 851,374	 896,675
1849..............	 6,151,360	 927,784	 7,079,144
1850	36,273,097	 665,217	 36,938,314
Nine months, 1851.....	37,694,257	 430,857	 38,125,154
Totals..............	80,164,055	 15,683,807	 95,847,862

"The total production of California gold since its first discovery must be considerably over one hundred millions of dollars; thus being equal to one-half the total coinage of the country since its separation from the British empire. To the $90,000,000 received at the mint, as shown above, must be added large amounts received here, and consumed by dentists and jewelers; considerable amounts shipped from San Francisco directly to other countries; the whole amount of the gold coinage and circulation of California itself, including the $50 pieces stamped by the United States assayer; the shipments received since the 1st of October, amounting at this port to nearly or quite $5,000,000; and all the gold dust now in the hands of miners and merchants on the Pacific side. It will not be too large an estimate probably to put down the entire production, so far, at $120,000,000.

"The production of gold has appreciated the value of silver in comparison, and that too at a time when the relative value of the latter had been increased by a series of financial movements in Europe heretofore fully explained, so that we are fast losing our silver coin. The only remedy which appears feasible, and likely to be generally acceptable to the country, seems to be for Congress to authorize a seignorage to be taken from all the new issues of silver coin. It cannot obtain a free circulation at its present value, as it is worth about 3 per cent. premium, and all large pieces are quickly taken for export. There are many objections to alloying the coin with the baser metals, which would not apply to reducing the weight. Let 7 per cent. be taken by the Government from the present value of the silver coin, and gold made the sole legal tender for all amounts above three or five dollars, and the export of coin would at once be stopped, while no one could be wronged. The present coins would be worth their full value to the holders; the new coin could be obtained at par for the convenience of change; and the Government would be reimbursed or all the expenses of the mint."

INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—RAIL-ROAD PROGRESS AND THE MOBILE AND OHIO ROAD.

NOTWITHSTANDING the illiberal spirit displayed in some parts of this paper, by Capt. Childe, towards New-Orleans, we still publish it entire. As that gentleman followed us a few weeks after, and spoke at the same points, he need only have made the inquiry to learn that our references to Mobile were always in the highest respect and courtesy; that we were never betrayed into expressions in regard to a neighbor, as "petty and contemptible jealousy"—"frightened monopoly"—"declamation and airy promises," etc. Mobile will reject this interpretation of her feelings if we properly appreciate her courtesy.

An abstract of the remarks of Capt. J. Childe, Chief Engineer of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, delivered at Nashville, Tennessee, in the Representative Hall, on the 22d November, 1851.

Capt. Childe said, that Nature has established in the existing variety of soil, climate, and products of the valley of the Mississippi, from the Gulf to the Lakes, a division of industrial interests, which strongly invites the people of that valley to institute a perfect and corresponding division of manual labor, by the introduction of the mechanic arts and manufactories, for which their coal, iron, cotton, hemp, flax, and unlimited supply of bread stuffs are a sure pledge of success. Commerce depends for success upon the natural and manual divisions of labor, whilst internal improvements serve to concentrate population and capital, until these divisions are made most perfect and productive to both. To extend these improvements, therefore, in advance of sufficient settlements and trade to justify their construction, and pay interest upon their cost, for the purpose of building towns, selling wild lands, or of crossing 2,000 miles of uninhabited country to look at the Pacific Ocean, is a delusive and speculative indulgence, both wasteful, and subversive of the first principles of political economy, which require concentration of labor and capital, so long as the wages of human skill and industry can be advanced, and thereby the population, wealth, and power of the present States of the Union promoted. Rivers, canals, and steam-boats have made wonderful developments in this western world; but the introduction of railways as co-laborers better fitted by speed and safety, for passenger and light merchandise traffic, will stimulate productive industry and trade, to such an extent as to yield far more of heavy tonnage, and of profit to steam-boat and canal interests, than in other respects they divert therefrom. This is proved since the introduction of railways by the more extensive use and profit of canals and steam-boats in England, of the New-York, Ohio and Pennsylvania canals, of steam-boats upon the Hudson, St. Lawrence, Ohio, and Upper Mississippi rivers, upon the northern lakes, and along the whole extent of our Atlantic coast. Everywhere their number and capacity are on the increase.—Even the Ocean steamers multiply for the trade of those seaports especially, which are connected extensively with the interior by long lines of railway. The cities of the South cannot create commerce at their respective ports by building steamers or sailing vessels. It is the free, speedy, and daily connection with the producing millions of an extensive interior country that can give them a large and miscellaneous exchange trade. This connection secured by canals and railroads, then Ocean vessels will come fast enough without our aid. In Europe and America, under the influence of the economical principles above stated, upwards of 18,000 miles of railways are now in operation, and half as many more chartered and in progress of construction. As labor-saving machines, they are unrivaled, producing to their owners a sufficient return for the capital expended, and to 120,000,000 of people who enjoy their use, a reduced cost of the labor performed, and of the commodities furnished by them for consumption, concurrently with the demand of at least 100,000,000 of dollars per annum.

Railways are of two classes—the first class consists of long lines connecting the interior with tide-water. The second class of branch, or cross roads, for lateral and local purposes, but in most cases valuable tributaries to the first class lines, or to the rivers. The first class, or tidal lines, are vastly the most important to the prosperity of the country, and should receive the earliest concentrated efforts of the people in their construction. Both individual and public economy require that their course should be as direct as possible, length and grades reduced, and cost moderate. These features can be attained for roads in the Mississippi valley in greater perfection than in any other part of the world, and ought not to be sacrificed to local or speculative interests, which often seek to warp a line of road from its true course. Instances of this sort of influence are seen on many of the roads of the United States. The most prominent of which are, the New-York and Erie Rail-road terminus, 25 miles above New-York city, upon the Hudson river; the termini of the Baltimore and Ohio road at Wheeling, Va., and Mt. Clare, Baltimore, instead of Parkersburgh, Va., the Bay of Baltimore, and the breaks in the line south of Washington, at Richmond, Petersburg and Augusta.

The Mobile and Ohio road has been located entirely free of such derangements, consulting first of all the general good. 3,500 miles of surveyed line have been run to determine the shortest route, lowest grades and least cost—

Its length in Alabama is	62¼	miles.
" " Mississippi is	273	"
" " Tennessee is	119½	"
" " Kentucky is	39½	"
Total main line	494¼	
Length of branch to Tennessee River in Mississippi	15	miles.
in Tennessee	8	"
Total main line and branch	517¼	
The main line passes 4 miles west of Purdy, and through McNairy county	34 7-10	miles.
Corner of Henderson county	1 8-10	"
" " Madison (near Jackson,)	31¾	"
" " Gibson (near Trenton,)	29	"
" Obion county	22¼	"
Length from Mobile to Tennessee river	346	"
" estimated, Tennessee river to Columbia	92	"
" from Columbia to Nashville	42	"
Total length, Mobile to Nashville	480	"

Thirty-three miles of the Mobile end of the road will be in complete operation by the 15th of February next. Forty-nine acres of ground for depots have been obtained at Mobile, with two wharves and right to run tracks through the commercial streets, that the cars may run to the warehouses, or vessels of consignees.—Vessels drawing 10 feet water are the largest that ordinarily come up to the city. All larger vessels anchor 16 to 25 miles below in the Bay, where there is 30 square miles of water, 2 to 9 fathoms deep. On the bar between this anchorage ground and the Gulf, there is 20¾ feet water at mean low tide. On the bar at the southeast Pass of the Mississippi River, there is at mean low tide 15½ feet. Difference in favor of Mobile bay 4¼ feet. The Mobile and Ohio road will be extended to this deep water, and thus the cars brought along side of vessels of 40 per cent. greater capacity than can get to New-Orleans. The export and import freights by these large vessels will be cheaper, and relieved from all charges for lighterage, or towage. Vessels from the Atlantic Ocean, the West India islands, or the Caribbean Sea, will generally make Mobile bay a day sooner than New-Orleans; and the exchange trade of Tennessee and Kentucky, with the southern and western portions of the globe, will thus prosper at Mobile bay, via the two arms of the Mobile and Ohio Road. Whilst the same trade with Europe, and the North Atlantic States of our own country, will for like reasons thrive at Charleston and Savannah, via the Nashville and Chattanooga road. The great office of rail-roads is to liberate men, whenever desirable, from the obstructed natural channels of commerce; and by equalizing prices, supply and demand, break up the spirit of monopoly, domination and speculation of such cities as New-York and New-Orleans.

The Obion river in West Tennessee is the largest stream crossed by the Mobile and Ohio road. None of them are navigable. At the mouth of the Ohio it will connect with all the steamboats of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, also with 1440 miles of rail-roads, at the bend of Tennessee with the boats of that river, and thence by a central line of road, via Nashville, to Louisville and Cincinnati, with 1,523 miles of rail-roads at Louisville, and 3,500 miles of rail-roads at Cincinnati. Thus forming two great routes from the Gulf to the Lakes; one ending at Chicago, the other at Cleveland, and connecting thence by railways with Baltimore, Philadelphia, New-York and Boston. These two routes traverse 10½ degrees of latitude, and connecting with steamers to Lake Superior on the North, to the Caribbean Sea on the South, will form a quick transit for passengers and for the interchange of the various products of 38 degrees of latitude; from Chagres and Trinidad to the north shore of Lake Superior, and thus create and stimulate an external and internal commerce far greater than can be promoted by the river channels alone.

The middle ground of this internal commerce will be central; and western Tennessee, where are combined the staple products of the South and North, with a temperate and healthy climate, water power, rich soils, iron, coal, beautiful marbles, limestone, and a variety of valuable timbers; all that can be needful for the prosecution of the mechanic arts and manufactures, except a system of railways, by which the products of all branches of industry within the state can be distributed north, east, south and west, and spread broadcast for general consumption. The first class roads that will most perfectly form this system, are the two north and south routes above named—the Nashville, Chattanooga, and Western—the Charleston and Memphis, and the Eastern Tennessee and Virginia lines. These five roads severally invite the aid of the states to the extent of furnishing the iron and machinery when the people shall have provided for or executed the local work of grading, &c. They are all long lines, (650 to 1000 miles,) drawing the trade of other states into and through Tennessee, and cannot fail to be eminently successful; while second class short roads, for local purposes, as branches to these long lines, or as tributaries to rivers, may fail to be profitable, and should be let alone until the long lines are completed; they will then, by the increasing prosperity of the people, and the aid of the long lines, come into existence as naturally and fruitfully as branches grow from trees.

New-York, Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina and Georgia, have severally assisted their citizens in building long first class routes, either by a subscription of stock, a bonus, a loan of credit, or by separately building the more difficult portion of the work, and with satisfactory results.

By the road from Mobile to the Tennessee and Ohio rivers, and by the other rail-roads connecting therewith, the following distances and starting time of trains will be found nearly correct. From Mobile—

		HOURS OF TIME.	
	Miles.	Freight.	Passeng.
To Jackson, Miss.	221	20	9
Vicksburg. "	268	23	11
Bend of Ten. River	346	29	15
Memphis, Ten.	428	36	18
Jackson, "	384	32	16
Trenton, "	409	34	17
Columbia, "	432	36	18
Nashville, "	480	40	20
Huntsville, Ala.	450	38	19
Mouth of Ohio R.	494	41	20½
St. Louis, Mo.	775	65	33
Louisville, Ky.	700	59	30½
Cincinnati, Ohio	800	68	34
Cleveland, "	1056	90	45
Chicago, Illinois	875	74	36½
Baltimore, Md., via Nashville and Cincinnati	1445	144	62

The total estimated cost of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, including the branch to Tennessee River, is ten millions of dollars, of which five millions is for local works, and five millions for iron rails, chairs, spikes, cars and engines. The local work on 127½ miles in Tennessee is one million and sixty thousand dollars; for iron rails, &c., as above, one million thirty-five thousand dollars.

Average cost per mile of local work	$8,313
do. do. of rails, &c., at the present prices of iron	8,120

To build the whole road in three years, the present subscription of Mobile furnishes—

For local work	$600,000
The new tax law do.	1,100,000
Present subscription of Miss. do.	1,000,000
To be obtained in Mississippi this winter, after the county law is altered, dividing the stock among the tax payers	740,000
Present subscription in Tenn.	150,000
To be obtained in Tennessee	910,000
do. Kentucky	500,000
Total	$5,000,000

In this sum are included $50,000 and $100,000, respectively, for depots at the Tennessee and Ohio rivers.

The lands granted to this road by congress are about 1,200,000 acres, which are estimated to be worth, after the road is done, three dollars per acre—mortgaged with the road to the state of Tennessee and foreign capitalists for a loan of five millions of dollars, for the term of twenty-five or thirty years; they can be sold within fifteen years after the road shall be completed, and the money invested in a sinking fund for the redemption of the bonds at maturity. It is calculated and believed that at the end of the twenty-five or thirty years, this fund will be sufficient to pay at least four-fifths of the whole loan; the interest being paid semi-annually from the earnings of the road. It is therefore respectfully requested that the present legislature of the state of Tennessee will assist the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road Company to obtain this loan of five millions of dollars on the best possible terms, by furnishing therefor state bonds to the amount of $1,035,000.

The organization of the company embraces two financial and local agents, one a citizen of Mississippi for that state, and one for Tennessee and Kentucky to be a citizen of Tennessee, whose duty it will be respectively to obtain the subscriptions for the stock before contracts are made, and afterwards collect the installments, and pay the contractors from time to time for work done in their respective districts.

The rate of charges for passengers and freights on the Mobile road, will incline to the low fare system. For passengers 2 to 3 cents per mile; for heavy, low-priced products of fields, forests and mines, and groceries 1¼ to 3 cents per ton per mile; for merchandise generally, 3 to 5 cents per ton per mile; for cotton from Tennessee to Mobile, $1 50 to $2 50 per bale.

With fixed rates of transportation, and the prices current received each day by the passenger trains from Charleston, Mobile and New-Orleans, the merchants of the interior can buy the entire crops of the country without risk; sending on one purchase after another for quick sale—import their own goods—and, in buying and selling constantly, in both directions, turn a profit on their capital twelve times a year. Tidal rail-ways are the virtual extension of the city wharves throughout the land, and enable the merchants (of Nashville, for instance) to import and export for the country around with great facility.

By the time the Mobile road can be completed to the Tennessee and Ohio rivers, low pressure steam packets, built for passengers alone, will be prepared to run in connection with the road from New-Orleans to Mobile, and from St. Louis and Louisville to the Ohio terminus. The latter will be long, light and swift, drawing so little water as to run in the lowest stages of the rivers. By such packets, and the rail-road, passengers can be conveyed in safety from St. Louis to Mobile in 36 hours, for $12; from Louisville to Mobile in 47 hours, for $13; and from Mobile to or from New-Orleans, in 12 hours, for $3.

When the route from the bend of the Tennessee to Louisville and Cincinnati shall be completed, connecting with the Chattanooga road at Nashville, the southern travel of Louisville and Cincinnati, and of the 5,000 miles of northern and eastern rail-roads which centre at those cities, will come via Nashville. But before this shall be done, the Mobile road cannot fail, by its junctions with the Tennessee, Ohio and Mississippi rivers, with the central Illinois road, and, thereby, with the traffic of the rail-roads and lakes of the north, to have an immense business. The ease and safety it will afford for people to escape in winter, in a few hours, from the cold blasts of the North to the temperate breezes of the South, or in summer, from the heat and sickness of the South, to the bracing airs of the North, will enlarge its travel, both *through* and *way*, beyond any present calculation. Based, however, upon low rates, upon one-third of the passengers that now pass annually up and down the Mississippi River to and from the northern states, and upon carrying way-passengers equal to one-third of the white population of the country adjoining the route, which is the first year's average experience of other rail-roads of our country, we shall have the following direct income, viz.:

From 125,000 through passengers. at $8.	$1,000,000
From 110,000 way-passengers, at $2	220,000
From through freights of merchandise, live stock, bread stuffs, &c.	842,000
From way freights of do. do. do.	738,000
From United States mails	90,000
Total income	$2,890,000
From which deduct all expenses for depreciation of tracks, repairs, and working the roads	1,445,000
Total nett earnings	$1,445,000
From which pay interest on five millions loan, 7 per cent., including exchange	350,000
Pay for additional cars, engines, side tracks, and buildings for increasing business	200,000
Pay 15 per cent. dividend on stock for local work of $500,000,000	750,000
Total for interest, construction and dividend	$1,300,000
Leaving a surplus for contingencies or sinking fund of	145,000

In relation to the revenue of rail-ways, it must be borne in mind that long lines, leading in the most direct and shortest course to tide water, from and through productive and well settled countries, with low gradients, and without breaks of track or gauge, or the delay and transhipments, are the most profitable to the stockholders and the country at large; but short and local roads are everywhere, especially in thinly settled countries, of very doubtful success, until favorably connected with tidal lines. Any general system, therefore, by a state to aid the construction of short and local lines, as well as the long and profitable ones, will divert much of the labor and means of the people from the latter to the former; introduce and encourage many speculative enterprises; protract the completion of the tidal lines; and greatly increase the state debt for private more than for public good.

The relation of the Mobile road to New-Orleans is one of deep interest to the people of that city. After comparing very complacently their own position and power with those of their neighbors at Mobile, they naturally concluded, as they had once tried and failed to build a road to Tennessee, that Mobile could only dream of constructing one to the Ohio river. But notwithstanding her incredulity, Mobile persevered in the work, and in two years from the commencement of the surveys, public sentiment pronounced it sure to succeed. Whereat, New-Orleans takes the field, without charters, surveys, or stock subscribed, lectures the people of Mississippi and Tennessee upon their several interests, and upon her own natural but aqueous rights, and calls upon them to come up in January next and give an account of their doings.

Now, the spirit of domination, of frightened monopoly, or of rivalry, indicated by this unsubstantial movement, places New-Orleans in a false position, unjust to herself and to her neighbors. Why should she seek to divert the attention of the people from the Mobile and Ohio road, by declamation and airy promises, two years at least before she can by legal authority and surveys lay a specific plan before them for a road to New-Orleans? Mobile can have her road done by the time New-Orleans gets fairly into the field, and it will be conveying passengers between the Ohio river and New-Orleans, via Mobile, in one-third of the time now required by the river. She therefore should stand its friend, and not as an enemy. The people *must* have better avenues to market than by the river channels, which are never right when most needed; and however much a general convention may help to draw out the latent energies of New-Orleans, it never can satisfy thinking men that two or three markets within reach are not better than one. Yet much important information will be elicited by it, a few items of which I here submit for the consideration of the people of North Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky, showing where is their shortest and cheapest route to tide water. The bend of the Tennessee River and its vicinity presents some attractions for three long lines of road, Charleston and Memphis; Mobile Nashville, Louisville and Cincinnati; and Mobile and Ohio. May not New-Orleans desire to connect herself to these roads in the same vicinity? And if so, what will be the comparative distances to New-Orleans and Mobile?

Route across Lake Ponchartrain, from bend of Tennessee	428	miles.
From do. to Mobile	346	"
Difference	82	"
and two transhipments.		
Route west of Lake Maurepas	455	miles.
To Mobile as before	346	"
Difference	109	"
Route via bank of Mississippi, and river Amitie	473	miles.
To Mobile as before	346	"
. Difference	127	"

New-Orleans is 110 miles from the Gulf; Mobile, 33; 77 miles difference; add this to the above differences, and 159 to 204 miles (according to the route taken for the New-Orleans road) will be the greater distance from North Mississippi, Tennessee, and Kentucky, to the Gulf, via New-Orleans. Will the interior planting and commercial interests willingly pay the expenses of this extra distance upon their exports and imports? But the position of New-Orleans, with ten thousand miles of navigable rivers, and five hundred steamers pouring the products of six millions of people into her lap, is superior to any other city on the globe, especially, as these six will rapidly swell into sixty millions and send *her* the greater portion of the products of one and a half millions of square miles. Thus situated, *can New-Orleans envy Mobile, Charleston or Savannah, or any other section of country, that strives to better its condition by artificial channels of trade? No. She will not so dishonor herself.* Let her rather enter the same sphere of enterprise. *The field is wide before her—too wide for petty and contemptible jealousies.*

The "gauge" of a rail-road is the width between the rails of the track. When two roads come together, differing in gauge, the cars and engines of one cannot pass upon the other, and transhipment of goods and passengers must be made. The Mobile road gauge is five feet, the same as the Chattanooga road. All roads within the State of Tennessee should be required by law to adopt the same; that cars from Charleston, Mobile and New-Orleans, can run to any and all parts of the state. The lines hence to Louisville and Cincinnati should also be the same.

Let any man review this matter with the United States map before him; trace the Mobile and Ohio road to the Tennessee River; its two great arms through west and central Tennessee, and its connecting lines north, east, and west, with all the large cities, and rivers of the Union, and he cannot avoid the conviction, that it will command more business and revenue in proportion to length, than any other road in the western world. Not forgetting at the same time, that the donated lands from the United States will, when sold, pay 40 per cent. of its entire cost.

2.—RAIL-ROADS OF TENNESSEE, ETC.

The following report from Mr. Robb of his visit to Nashville at the instance of the New-Orleans council, is interesting. Having visited Nashville previously in a similarly official character, we can superadd our own testimony, which agrees in every particular with his.

NASHVILLE, *December* 8, 1851.

The public journals will have made you acquainted with our favorable reception in this city, which may be considered an index of popular feeling regarding the object of our mission, and we make this communication with a view to informing our citizens, through you, of the measures relating to internal improvements now engaging the attention and deliberation of the legislature of Tennessee.

Several bills are now before the committees of this body for chartering rail-road companies, and granting the aid of the state towards the completion of various roads; and, as far as we are able to form an opinion from the temper and disposition of the members of the legislature, as now expressed, we think there is every probability that seven or eight millions of dollars will be appropriated, in the shape of an issue of six per cent. stock, to be employed in purchasing the iron and equipments of the roads now contemplated.

The most important of these are, the road to Louisville, the Nashville and Mississippi road, to the New-Madrid road, the Memphis and Charleston road, the East Tennessee road, diverging from Knoxville east to the Virginia line, and south to Chattanooga, on the Tennessee river, and the Nashville and Southern road to the Tennessee line, to connect with roads from New-Orleans and Mobile.

The road from Nashville to Chattanooga is partly completed, and within a year may be entirely so; when this is done, it will open a direct rail-road communication between Nashville, Charleston and Savannah. The road to New-Madrid Bend is intended as a continuance of that important connection, and to open a direct comunication between the Atlantic coast and the Mississippi River. The road from Memphis to Chattanooga, called the Memphis and Charleston road, is already commenced, and it is expected that ninety miles, now under contract, will be finished on or before the first of October, 1852. Two and a half millions of dollars of stock have been subscribed to this undertaking, and with the addition of the expected aid from the state, there is every reason to believe that this improvement will be speedily completed.

In view of these improvements being made, and the connections they will naturally form, it is apparent that a system of rail-road communication will soon be established that will draw and divert the trade, travel and commerce of the entire North-eastern Valley of the Ohio and Mississippi to the Atlantic seaboard; and that while New-Orleans neglects the warnings of these examples, she must be gradually stripped of her dependencies, until she will be reduced to a sole reliance on the trade supplied by the country below Memphis, and that of Louisiana.

Notwithstanding the little we have done, and the discouragements that depress the enterprise of our citizens, owing to the unwise laws of restraint that now exist, the inordinate increase of local taxation, and the deranged and unfortunate circumstances of our city finances and credit, there is yet hope that we shall retain our present advantages, and gain all, and more than we have lost; and that this can be accomplished by making an expenditure that will not be extravagant in amount, and which as an investment of capital, promises certain large returns.

While Tennessee is deeply interested in maintaining her ancient alliance with us, she has wisely decided to retain control over the advantages of her position, and to treat all alike who are seeking for the monopoly of her trade. Finding this to be the prevailing feeling with leading members of her legislature, we concluded to relinquish the plan of a joint charter, and procured the introduction of a bill into the lower branch of the legislature to incorporate the Nashville and Southern Rail-road Company, to connect at the Tennessee River with any road from New-Orleans and Mobile, with the proviso that in any contract with either of these roads, the rates of toll and transportation should be equal, and that no preference should be given to one over the other. The importance and future profit of this road is so manifest, that we do not hesitate to say, that with an appropriation of state aid to purchase iron and equipments, the stock will be immediately taken in the counties through which the road may pass.

Besides opening a communication to the Gulf, it supplies one with Memphis, by means of the road now building between Chattanooga, and without any material increase of distance over a direct line of roads betwen these two cities.

Assuming that Tennessee will make her portion of the road, it only remains for New-Orleans and Mississippi to do their part, and complete a great road from New-Orleans to the Tennessee, making a distance not exceeding four hundred miles, and over a section of country in every way favorable to the construction of a road on a scale of very moderate outlay, and in an unusually short space of time.

If this road be started, and the work under progress, great impulse will at once be given to the various roads now in projection, and in three or four years, New-Orleans will be reached from Pittsburg and the Northern Lakes in sixty hours, Louisville in thirty hours, Nashville and Memphis in twenty hours, Knoxville in East Tennessee, in forty hours, and Washington City in sixty hours.

It is needless to enlarge on what will be the probable growth and increase of New-Orleans when she becomes the terminus of this magnificent system of rail-road communications, and it requires the exercise of no more than ordinary foresight to perceive that when this is obtained, New-Orleans will speedily be made the great mart of trade with our Pacific possessions; and in a very few years, build up a commerce that will elevate her to a scale of grandeur and importance, that will place her in the foremost rank with the first cities of the world.

All we have observed and learned of the great resources of this interesting state, impress us favorably, and we dismiss all doubts on the score of the success of the undertaking we are seeking to promote. The cost of building a rail road to this city, a distance of about five hundred and fifty miles from New-Orleans, will not much exceed eight millions of dollars. The cost of the Erie road, which is near one hundred miles shorter, was over twenty millions of dollars. The traffic and travel on the latter is now yielding an average total receipt of four millions of dollars per annum, as shown by actual returns; but, enormous as this sum may appear, it is inferior to what the income of a road to New-Orleans will be when completed, and embracing the vast connections which have already been reviewed; but, allowing that it will not exceed the Erie road, and assuming its expenses at fifty per cent. of its earnings, which is excessive, and, we believe, above the average expenses of rail-roads in the South, it would still leave a profit of over twenty per cent. on the investment; a result without parallel in the history of rail-road enterprise, and one that will not excite surprise in the minds of those who will take the trouble to examine the facts.

It is not in our province to intrude on your notice a narrative of estimates foreign to our mission, but we hope we shall be excused in thus deviating, and bringing to the notice of our citizens, facts and suggestions that cannot too soon engage their earnest attention—we have no doubt about the charter we want being granted by the legislature of Tennessee, but are less confident about the aid of the state being given, in consequence of the danger to be apprehended from the projection of roads, that would swell the appropriation to an amount beyond what we have mentioned.

Before closing this communication, it is proper that we should express our sense of obligation for the sincere kindness and hospitality we have received at the hands of his Excellency Governor Campbell, the members of the legislature, and the enlightened and hospitable citizens of Nashville. Long impressed with the high character of this gallant people, our recent opportunities have added to our admiration of their brilliant qualities, and convinced us of how much we have to gain as a community and a state, in knowing them better, and cultivating by the bonds of nearer and closer alliance, the cherished relations of friends and countrymen.

3.—PROPOSED PLAN OF BUILDING SOUTHERN RAIL-ROADS.

To our Fellow-citizens of Louisiana, Mississippi, and Texas:

Much reflection on the condition of our planting parishes, and the circumstances of this state and Texas, have led to the conclusion, that the most certain, practicable, and economical mode of constructing the rail-road contemplated in Louisiana and Mississippi,—especially the road from New-Orleans to Opelousas,—would be, by means of the labor of our negroes, to be contributed and directed in the following manner, viz:

The planters of each parish or county through which the road is to run, should be called upon for one, two, three, or more slaves, according to their respective forces,—which hands should be employed on the nearest section of the road, under competent managers, to clear and grade the track, and do all the work necessary, to prepare the road for the iron. The owners of these slaves should be paid for their labor, at a fair rate, in railway stock. In this way, it is believed that the necessary labor to construct the road, may be more promptly and surely obtained than in any other way.

Suppose fifty planters send only two negroes from each of ten parishes; this would supply one thousand good laborers, who might be set to work immediately on the road.—then call upon the merchants and property-holders of New-Orleans to subscribe, to defray the expense of supporting these laborers; their subscriptions to be paid in monthly instalments. If, by the withdrawal of this number of slaves from the production of sugar and cotton, the crops of these staples should be diminished, the price could be enhanced, and thus no loss be sustained. In the meantime, when our planters have given such proofs of their earnestness and practical determination to carry out these improvements, capitalists will come forward promptly and liberally, to furnish the means of purchasing the iron for the road; they will buy lands on the line of the road, and thus interest themselves in its success.

With the labor thus supplied, the work will be greatly facilitated by the vast timber resources of this section of the country.

By the application of modern appliances of machinery, all the difficulties presented by the character of the country, may be easily overcome; and with the facilities and advantages suggested, the cheapest road in the world may be made in the shortest time.

MAUNSEL WHITE.
AMBROSE LANFEAR.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—SOUTHERN DIRECT TRADE.

IMPORTANCE OF DIRECT TRADE TO THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE—ADVANTAGES OF AMSTERDAM, BREMEN, ETC., FOR SOUTHERN TRADE, ETC.

Direct Trade.—The Savannah Republican publishes the following letter from an intelligent German gentleman, upon the subject of a direct trade between southern ports and the continent of Europe:

Darien, *November* 27, 1851.

When I first read in the newspapers of a meeting to be held in this place, to promote the interest of direct trade to the continent of Europe from the south of the United States, I considered it my duty to say a few words about it—it so happening that I was present here at the time.

You will excuse me, gentlemen, being a foreigner, thus to intrude upon your patience; but by giving you a short sketch of my life, you perhaps will think me competent to advise with you upon the important matter now before you.

Born and raised in the northern part of the kingdom of Hanover, on the River Ems, after being well schooled, I was educated a merchant in the cities of Bremen, Amsterdam, Hamburg and London, from my 16th to my 30th year. In 1820 I left London, and although until then only engaged in general commercial business, I was sixteen years dealer in timber and lumber in Emden on the Ems, and was English and Brazil Vice-Consul the while. In 1837 I formed a co-partnership with my brother in Amsterdam; in 1839 I returned to the timber trade, principally in America. Forty-five years in commercial business at large, and in colonial articles: as cotton, rice, sugar, &c., and during that time scarcely twelve months without visiting the large commercial cities of Europe, always an attentive merchant. This perhaps will entitle me to your attention.

Your object, gentlemen, to make yourselves more independent of Liverpool, to save freight, and so many other charges by direct trade to Europe, avoiding northern ports, and incidental expenses, is reasonable and right. By direct trade you not only save great and unnecessary expense, but you also will receive in return European produce cheaper; emigration will be invited this way, and home shipbuilding and ships will be encouraged. Direct trade has long since existed between Bremen and Charleston, Wilmington, Savannah, Mobile, New-Orleans and Galveston; but it remains for you, gentlemen, by putting your own hands to the work, to extend and perfect good beginnings, and save to your own pockets and enterprise the fruits of your industry.

To obtain the advantages of direct trade with the continent of Europe, your attention has been particularly directed to the city of Amsterdam. Allow me to mention to you some of the advantages and some of the disadvantages regarding that trade, that you may the better judge for yourselves.

Amsterdam is a wealthy city; its merchants are eminent, and some of them rich; money is easy to be obtained from the Bank of Amsterdam at a low per cent. Amsterdam has communication by canals all through Holland. In about two years it will have a railroad communication with Germany. By a branch of the Rhine it has communication with the German Rhine provinces, the most populous part of Germany. It is a market for cotton and rice, and imports largely of tobacco from Baltimore. All this is true; but again, while the wealth of Amsterdam is proverbial, it is with the merchant's wealth we are interested, and this is mostly employed in support of the society of commerce called in Dutch, "Handel Maatschappy," importing from Java, Sumatra, the Dutch E. India Colonies, China, &c., upwards of a million bales of coffee, 150 millions weight and more of sugar, spices of all kinds, Java indigo, Java tea, Java tobacco, rice and hides, and many articles from Japan—having a capital of seventy millions of florins. Two-thirds of these importations are sold to Germany; three millions of Hollanders do not consume it. Germany is at any time so largely indebted to Amsterdam and Rotterdam merchants, that it is a question whether these merchants, proverbially cautious, would advance very largely on any great amount of your produce.

The Amsterdam Bank will advance two-thirds of the amount of produce at the exchange market prices, but the merchant who takes such advance must be ready any day to refund, even if prices go down. This in many cases has proved fatal, because if he fails to comply, his stock will be sold to meet his liabilities, and most, always, at ruinous rates. There are circumstances sometimes present, under which the bank will not advance; but these are exceptions.

The inland communication by way of canal, is admirable. The most of them have their outlets at Amsterdam. This is a source of much wealth to this city. This trade does not extend beyond its frontiers, except, perhaps, on the side of Belgium, and is confined therefore to three millions of Hollanders.

The branch of the Rhine which makes Amsterdam's continuation with the German Rhine provinces, in the summer time between Arnheim and Utrecht. is often too dry even for small craft—in winter, ice prevents communication altogether. In such cases, nothing remains but to send the goods bound for Germany over Rotterdam or by rail-road to Arnheim, to be forwarded thence on the Rhine.

A communication of the railway from Amsterdam to Arnheim, up to the Oberhausen, where the Cologne Minden Rail-road passes, has been lately agreed upon—this may be finished in two years; then, and not till then, will Amsterdam have a regular rail-road communication with the interior of Germany, which your interests will require.

The Dutch colonies hitherto produced no cotton, but they produce a vast deal of rice and tobacco, and other articles. These, imported from, and produced in the colonies, are free of all import duty, being considered as home products; the consequence is, that they can be sold cheaper than Carolina rice and American tobacco.

Probably the greatest incumbrance concerning trade with Holland, is the enormous charges freight vessels and ship owners have to pay in entering her out-ports. Any vessel from Savannah will sooner sail at $12 for two tons to Bremen, although 3 or 400 miles further, than for $16 for the same to Amsterdam. I myself pay that difference—but who pays it? The importer from America, and lastly and really the planters. If your produce is imported into Holland in bond, you will have to pay those extra charges which the people in Hamburgh and Bremen can avoid by getting the produce they want directly from your ports, which they do.

Your ship-owners have nothing to load back from Holland but gin and Java coffee. There are no emigrants. If your vessel wants them, they have to sail from Bremenhaven, as some of them have—if emigrants should go by Holland, they would go by Rotterdam, but they will be few.

Notwithstanding what I have said, Amsterdam is a proper place to ship some of your produce, but by no means make it your sole depot on the continent; in this you will find your error. Amsterdam has no regular steamers but two to Hamburgh, and a few small ones to England; there are none to any port of the United States.

Another charge on shipping to Amsterdam is the necessity for vessels of 10 feet draft of water and upwards, to go through by the North Holland canal, which is very considerable; and in the winter this canal is closed; whereas the Weser, the river that leads to Bremen, up as far as Bremenhaven, never freezes.

The prosperity of a city and amount of trade going on, is often, and perhaps correctly judged, by the increase of population. Now, then, after the peace in 1815, Amsterdam had 200,000 inhabitants, it has now about 212,000. Bremen had then 30,000, and it has now 60,000. In Amsterdam you scarcely ever see new buildings going up. Bremen has been built and rebuilt since 1815, Amsterdam is exactly as it was in that year; whereas, any one who knew Bremen in 1815, would hardly recognize it in 1851.

My opinion therefore is, that the larger proportion of your produce might be sent to Bremen with more advantage than any where else. Bremen has scarcely its equal in the perseverance and intrepidity of its eminent merchants. Before 1815, Bremen had very few vessels of her own; now she has two hundred, from 300 to 1400 tons; more than two-thirds of these trade to the United States, and some with South and Central America, the Brazils and the Pacific. There are three regular lines, of four vessels each, to New-Orleans; regular lines to New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, Galveston, San Francisco, and other American ports. She exports more German emigrants than all the other ports put together.

In Bremenhaven, the harbor of Bremen, are docks large enough to admit your largest steamers) soon to be opened. I do not know the depth of water exactly on the bar of the Weser, but I once crossed it with a vessel of one thousand tons, drawing eighteen feet. The German fleet, frigates of war, are riding there in the harbor. The Washington and the Hermann, large class steamers, come and go regularly from New-York.

Shipowners have very small charges to pay there—scarcely any worth speaking of in comparison with other ports. American and English vessels repair there for emigrants.

Your vessels at any time will load cheaper to Bremen, although four or five hundred miles further, than any port of Holland; labor is cheap there. The import duty is, I believe, only ¼ or ½ per cent. on the value of all imported articles; and this is not levied by custom-house officers, but paid by the consignees at Bremen, upon their declaration on oath as Bremen citizens. It would not pay to have a lot of custom-house officers to collect so trifling a tax. Hence it is that you can buy wine, brandy, and quite a number of other articles, very near as cheap in Bremen as at the places where first sold. Breadstuffs, meat, &c., are cheap, and labor cheap in consequence. If desired, I can furnish account sales and invoices of any article of export and import, which will demonstrate in favor of Bremen. The trade between the two ports of Amsterdam and Bremen and the United States is vastly in favor of Bremen, and has been steadily on the increase since the European peace of 1815; in consequence, the merchants of Bremen know more of the trade you have in view, and understand rendering all facilities and advances. If your merchants and planters were to make Bremen the depot for your exports, that government would make itself a party, and extend every advantage and perfect every mutual understanding, The advantage that Bremen holds over Amsterdam in its communication with the interior of Germany, claims your consideration. On the River Weser, a remarkable town called Munden, in the kingdom of Hanover, employs a number of steamers carrying merchandise up and down from Bremen, beside many land freight vehicles for the interior to such as choose to meet the higher charges; but the principal communication is the rail-road, part of the great chain which interests in Hanover, unites Bremen with all Germany, France, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, &c.

In four hours from Bremen the cars arrive in Hanover, where the rail-roads of all parts of Germany meet. In fifteen hours, they are in Cologne, on the Rhine, which forms the communication with all the Rhine provinces; with Switzerland, Belgium and France, in twelve hours; in Berlin, the capital of Prussia, with 400,000 inhabitants; in ten hours, in Leipsig, at the grand fairs; in six hours, in Brunswick, another fair-market; in eighteen hours; in Prague, the capital of Bohemia; in thirty-six hours, in Vienna, the capital of all Austria; and in fifty-four hours, in Trieste, on the Adriatic Sea. I may be mistaken a little in regard to time, but there cannot be much of error.

Tobacco and rice principally sold in Bremen, hitherto not a great deal of cotton, but at any rate more than in Amsterdam. My own house in the former city has made large sales.

I have felt it my duty to compare commercially, the two cities of Amsterdam and Bremen, and leave you to judge; and sincerely believe, that in the accomplishment of your great object, direct trade with the continent of Europe, that Bremen presents the greatest advantages. Germany is the heart of Europe, and Bremen the most available port for economy of charges, dispatch and safety.

2.—ANCIENT AND MODERN NEGROES.

The following was published in the Concordia Intelligencer, and taken from the London Lancet of 1835.

Our aim is to furnish the readers of the Review all the information, practical or speculative, developed in those negro researches, which are now so much occupying the world. In this connection the present paper has interest, though it controverts doctrines previously published by us and held to be true.

So great has been the press of material, that we have been compelled to forego the continuation of *Dew's Essay*, which we are determined, nevertheless, shall be completed in our twelfth volume:

Sir,—From a learned work, printed a short time since, entitled "Anacalypsis," and written by the late Godfrey Higgens, I have made some extracts which relate to a portion of the early history of our race, and, as I conceive, bear reference to a part of the inhabitants still existing on our globe.

This communication, although not *strictly* of a medical nature, yet may be deemed replete with interest, as connected with those extensive views which our science naturally embraces. Truly appertaining to the natural history of man, upon which subject your columns at various periods are pregnant with information, viewing it in its physical and moral aspects, I trust it will be thought that this article has not intruded into a quarter which might have been more legitimately and more profitably occupied. May I therefore request its insertion in your widely-diffused periodical, in the hope that some of the scientific readers of *The Lancet*, whose investigations have been directed towards such matters, may be enabled to adduce some arguments, or disclose some facts, tending to elucidate the apparent inconsistency, or altogether to remove the presumed resemblance?

EXTRACTS.

1. It was the opinion of Sir William Jones, that a great nation of *blacks* formerly possessed the dominion of Asia, and held the seat of empire at Sidon. These must have been the people called by M. Maurice, "Cushites," or "Cuthites," described in Genesis; and the opinion that they were blacks, is corroborated by the translators of the Pentateuch called "the Seventy," constantly rendering the word "Cush" by "Ethiopia."

2. "The religion of Buddha of India, is very ancient, as well known. In the most ancient temples scattered throughout Asia, where his worship is yet continued, he is found *black as jet*, with the flat face, thick lips, and curly hair of the *negro*. Several statues of him may be met with in the museum of the East India Company. There are two exemplars, brooding on the face of the deep, upon a coiled serpent. To what time are we to allot this negro? He will be proved to have been prior to the god called "Cristna." He must have been prior to, or contemporaneous with, the black empire, supposed by Sir W. Jones to have flourished at Sidon. The religion of this negro god is found, by the ruins of his temples and other circumstances, to have been spread over an immense extent of country, even to the remotest part of Britain.

3. "Eusebius states that the Ethiopians settled in Egypt in the time of Amenophis; they came from the River Indus, and planted themselves south of Egypt.

4. "Philostratus says, that the gymnosophists of Ethiopia, who settled near the sources of the Nile, descended from the Bramins of India, having been driven thence for the murder of their king.

5. "Eustasius also states, that the Ethiopians came from India.

6. "The superior antiquity of India is shown by Baily, and many other learned men.

7. "The Ethiopians are stated by Herodotus to have come from the Indus. Memnon, who was sent to the siege of Troy, and was killed by Achilles, Virgil decribes as having been a *black*, (*Æneid*, lib. i,) as does also Pindar, [*Olymp*. Od. ii.; *vide* Diss. of Bishop Hewet, ch. xiii., p. 185.] That Pindar and Virgil were right, the features of the bust of Memnon in the British Museum prove, for they are evidently those of the negro.

8. "Mr. Wilsford, in his treatise on Egypt and the Nile, in the 'Asiatic Researches,' informs us that *many very ancient statues* of the god Buddha, in India, have *crisp curly hair* with *flat noses* and *thick lips*. Nor can it reasonably be doubted that a race of negroes formerly had power and pre-eminence in India. This is confirmed by M. Maurice, who says, 'the figures in the Hindoo caverns are of a very different character from the present race of Hindoos: their countenances are *broad and full*, the *nose is flat*, and the *lips*, particularly the *under lip*, are *remarkably thick*.'"

9. "This is again confirmed by Col. Fitzclarence in his journal; and Maurice, in the first volume of his Indian Antiquities, states that the figures in the caves of India, *are absolutely the same as those in Egypt described by Bruce, Niebuhr*, &c.

10. "Justin states that the Phœnicians, being obliged to leave their native country in the East, they settled first near the Persian Gulf; and Maurice says, 'We find an extensive district, named Palestine, to the east of the Euphrates and Tigris. The word Palestine seems derived from *Pallisthan*, the seat of the Pallis, or Shepherds,"—*Pali* in India means *Shepherd*. This, coupled with the Shepherd Kings of Egypt, confirms Sir W. Jones's opinion in a striking manner, respecting a *black* race having reigned at Sidon."

11. "Sir W. Jones says, 'the Mountaineers of Bengal and Bahar can hardly be distinguished in some of their features, particularly in their *lips* and *noses*, from the modern Abyssinians, whom the Arabs call the children of Cush.'

12. "In my essay on Celtic Druids, I have observed that a great nation called 'Celtæ,' of whom the Druids were the priests, spread themselves over almost the whole earth, and are to be traced in their rude gigantic monuments from India to the extremity of Britain. What these can have been but the early individuals of the *black nation*, of whom we have been treating, I know not, and in this opinion I am not singular. The learned Maurice says, 'Cuthites, *i. e.*, Celts, built the great temples in *India* and *Britain*, and excavated the caves of the former.' And the learned mathematician, Reuben Burrow, has no hesitation in pronouncing Stonehenge to be a temple of the black curly-headed Buddha."—P. 52.

If it can be admitted with the learned author from whom I have quoted, that the most ancient race of which we have any record, either in the pages of history, or in the gigantic cavern sculptures of the east, or in the traditionary legends, were *black*, and in physical conformation and visible aspect similar to the race of negroes which at present exists, by what means can we account for the degraded condition of the latter? How reconcile the vast intellectual distinction between them?

I think it will be readily allowed that the negro nation, so far as we are acquainted with them, are fitted, neither by physical capabilities nor by moral attributes, to become the founders or rulers of great kingdoms. We perceive that year after year, and century after century, to them brings no change. We observe that their habits and their customs remain unaltered; that in no respect do their intellectual endowments appear to advance with the experience of years; and the most that can be stated in their favor is this, that they have remained stationary from the period of their first introduction to civilized man. How, then, were their presumed predecessors enabled to assume so commanding a situation, to attain so proud an elevation among the empires of the world? By what means did they arrive at such eminence in scientific knowledge and mechanical ingenuity? In what manner did they extend their fame and influence into almost every region, however remote?

A query naturally suggests itself. Can the existing African negroes be the descendants of this widely-spread, intelligent, and refined race? Can the beings so low in the scale of intellect as the negro is represented to us to be, be connected by consanguinity with this exalted people? If it be answered in the negative, where—to what country—shall we look for their continuance? Where are their descendants in skill, knowledge, and refinements, possessing the same external physical conformation?

If the query which I have above suggested be answered in the affirmative, to what chain of causes are we to affix the great debasement of the present existing negro? To what source are we to turn for satisfactory reasons for such a manifest and striking difference in the intellectual endowments and sagacious actions of the same people of two different periods?

Without presuming to offer an opinion, but merely to afford a hint for investigation, I would ask, whether the solution of the difficulty can be advanced by the following attempt at explanation? A succession of conquests, with other political and social causes combined, forced these black descendants of the Palli, or India-Egyptian shepherd kings, and the tribes belonging to them, to emigrate progressively further into the interior of the vast continent of Africa, where at length they find a secure and unmolested haven from their toils and sufferings, unworthy of the ambition and uninviting to the cupidity of their neighbors. The intense heat of the climate, the sterility of the soil, and the unimprovable appearance of the whole face of the country, would be sufficient to ward off all intruders, whether hostile or commercial. Remaining for centuries in this isolated condition, they continued a distinct and unmixed race. The powerful stimuli of foreign war, of commercial intercourse, of social improvement, being absent, their minds became contracted and weak. Succeeding generations adding to the solidity of their progenitors, became still more depressed in mental energies, and after the lapse of many ages, they reached the degraded and melancholy condition which they exhibit. Finally, having little or no intercourse with the rest of mankind, and a very limited range for the exercise of their intellectual and moral faculties, the gradual disuse of those powers which were originally implanted in them, may have created that result on their cranial configuration and intellectual manifestations, which, under somewhat analogous circumstances, phrenologists have frequently observed. I remain, sir, your ever-instructed reader,

T. C. Girtin, *Surgeon.*

Islington, Sept. 19*th*, 1835.

3.—SLAVERY—THE WORLD'S FAIR.

The Pennsylvanian, in an eloquent article on this subject, draws the following striking contrast between negro slavery in the South, and the impoverished and oppressed laboring classes in England:

"There is, however, one department that we should like the British Government to reserve in the Fair; and that is to furnish the means to contrast American slavery with British slavery, before the representatives of all the world, who will be found in London, in almost numberless masses. We should be willing to agree that England should send George Thompson to the South to select the worst object of black servitude in that region, while the objects of English oppression might be taken at random. He might go to the rice fields of South Carolina, to the cotton groves of Alabama; to the sugar plantations of Louisiana; to the tobacco plains of Virginia and Maryland; and choose his specimens. Let them be carried over the wide waste of waters. Let them be placed in the midst of that World's Exhibition. Let them be brought, face to face, with the rulers of England, and the slaves of England; and then let the judgment of mankind be pronounced.

"On the one hand, we should see the colored slaves of our southern states—the objects of British pathos and periodical pathos—and on the other, the servile slaves of England; of that England, whose boast it is that the world contains no land where the personal liberty of citizens is so well secured, and where there is more personal happiness and comfort. Look at these white slaves. Here is an object that never saw the light of day before. He was born in the mines of Wales, where generations of his family had preceded him; born at the side of a grave, to waste a few short years of stupidity and toil, and then to step into it. Lo! the next; a weak woman! Once she was beautiful as the May morning; once she was lovely as the loveliest of her sex. Poverty and penury drove her to a life of labor; she was too proud to beg, too pure for vice, and yet too weak to work. Like hundreds of thousands of her sex, "she dies every day she lives," and pines away in working for those who riot in plenty. There is the once strong Irish tenant, with his sick and starving family; his eye kindling with the memory of his country's wrongs, even while his frame is crouched down by the tyranny of a government which refuses to listen to his prayers, and fastens upon him foreign ecclesiastics, to be supported by his emaciated hands.

"Take next the slave of the cotton manufactories; the child prematurely old, the perishing mother, the desponding father, the reckless daughter—all the victims of the brutality or beastiality of the overseer. Next examine the scenes of vice, and of the countless myriads that swarm in the streets of London, and beg and steal for a living. Manhood has long ago left his bosom, and the light of intellect has been extinguished in the continual struggle of his brain to invent a new plan of plunder. We let these samples of British slavery stand. There are others. India could send her millions. Canada might show her thousands. But these we have cited are domestic samples. Let the World's Jury pronounce between the black slavery of America, and the white slavery of England. Let them decide which is better cared for—which is fitter to live because of the good he does and which is *fitter to die.* Our transatlantic friends should by all means see that the World's Fair does not go on until a department for this most philosophical contrast and curiosity shall be prepared for the inspection of the Nations of the globe."

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

V. K. STEVENSON, OF TENNESSEE.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 14.

OF all the leading and practical minds who are now actively employed in developing the resources and elevating the industrial rank and importance of the state of Tennessee, there is no one more distinguished at home, or more recognized abroad, than V. K. Stevenson.

This gentleman, who arrived in Nashville in 1831, a poor and friendless boy, and destitute of even a single day's support, succeeded very soon, by activity, energy and industry, in establishing himself in a remunerative business, and in the course of fifteen years in building up a very handsome fortune. His earliest association was with J. M. Hill, a well-known merchant of Nashville.

Retiring from the pursuits of commerce in 1843, Mr. Stevenson's mind was attracted to the subject of internal improvements, being among the very first to discover the necessity of his state and city taking a more active stand in their favor. Amid a thousand obstacles, and with much of the persecution that invariably attends the footsteps of every innovator upon established customs and opinions, he devoted himself assiduously, and with energies that have never tired, to the construction of a rail-road from Nashville to Chattanooga, in order, through the public works of Georgia and Carolina, to connect the capital of Tennessee with the Atlantic seaboard. By an almost unanimous vote he was made a director in the first board that was organized, and with entire unanimity was elected first president of the company, a position which he still holds, and in which he has continued to retain the favor and confidence of the whole stockholding interest. The success with which this great public work has been conducted, has, we believe, been mainly to his practical and determined spirit, and untiring assiduities.

Though without the advantage of early education, being afflicted in his eyes, and thus incapacitated from study during the whole period of childhood and youth, and afterwards, when restored, being compelled from the embarrassed circumstances of his father to enter into business, Mr. Stevenson has contrived to amass a very considerable amount of information, and upon the subject of rail-roads and internal improvements in general, we do not believe that any man in this country has attained more extensive accurate and reliable information. In our conversations with him, we have been continually surprised by his readiness upon almost every topic connected with these important matters. Though without any previous practice in public speaking, in his zeal and energy he found it necessary to resort to arousing the attention of the people, and by dint of practice and the earnestness of truth, has made himself a very strong and impressive speaker.—He has appeared before the people everywhere on the hustings, in the legislative halls, and in Charleston, winning in the last instance the highest plaudits, and carrying, in despite of much indifference, and even opposition, public sentiment and public aid in favor of his enterprise.

Mr. Stevenson has lately projected a very extensive system of public works for Tennessee, and his opinions and influence carry a very high and preponderating weight in the legislature and throughout the state. We have referred to his system several months ago, as embodied in a letter which he was kind enough to prepare for us when in Nashville. This system, with some modifications, which we have previously suggested, and which have been well pointed out, we think, by our friends in Memphis, would give to Tennessee rank among the first states of the Union.

Mr. Stevenson, though born in Kentucky, is descended from Hugh Stevenson, a native of North Carolina, whose parents being engaged in the revolution, lost a large fortune by the chances and accidents of war, and the subsequent depreciation of continental money. On the mother's side, he is descended from Thomas Sharp, who, with the Bowens, Robertsons, Buchanans, Weaklys, Castlemans, etc., settled first in the vicinities of Nashville; and though surrounded with a fierce and implacable Indian foe, paved the way for that civilization and wealth, which have already made famous the metropolis. His father was a man of great inventive powers, employing most of his time in reading and reflection, whilst his mother partook of some of the same characteristics, being a woman of uncommon compass and vigor of intellect, and not unacquainted even with the abstruser topics of science and knowledge. She raised a large family, instilling into them the precepts of honesty and industry.

We take leave of Mr. Stevenson with regret that our materials for a biography are so meagre, and that we are not permitted to do more justice to his position and usefulness.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—PRESENT CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY.

FROM the last message of the President, and from the reports of the Seretaries, all of which are now published, except that of the Secretary of the Treasury, we are enabled to arrive at a tolerably correct view of the present political, financial, commercial, agricultural, and industrial condition of the country, which would have been furnished sooner to our readers but for a press of other matters. It will be valuable, however, for future reference.

We still continue to maintain the most amicable relations with every nation on earth, although events calculated to disturb those relations have occurred, during the past year—events which, in the case of almost any other nation, would probably have led to war. We must ascribe our present peaceful condition rather to the anti-belligerent character of our nation, than to the character of the events which have occurred. Moderation is a virtue; but it may be carried too far. We think it has been, during the past year, in not only the case of Cuba, but in that of Tehuantepec and Nicaragua. The moderation of our government, in affairs involving the national honor, has, in the eyes of foreign nations, degenerated almost into imbecility.

England has failed to comply with her treaty stipulations in the case of Nicaragua, besides joining with France in intervening in the affairs of Cuba. Both those governments have their navies now in the neighborhood of our shores, with instructions "to prevent by force, if necessary, the landing of adventurers from any nation on the isle of Cuba with hostile intention." The explanations of such an extraordinary movement which have been made to our government by France and England are not satisfactory. It is difficult to conceive how the instructions under which the naval commanders of France and England are now acting, can be obeyed without exercising the right of search, which led to our last war with England. We like the tone of President Fillmore on this subject. He observes that—

> "The maritime rights of the United States are founded on a firm, secure, and well-defined basis; they stand upon the ground of national independence and public law, and will be maintained in all their full and just extent.
>
> "The principle which this government has heretofore solemnly announced it still adheres to, and will maintain under all circumstances and at all hazards. That principle is, that in every regularly documented mer-

> chant vessel, the crew who navigated it, and those on board of it, will find their protection in the flag which is over them. No American ship can be allowed to be visited or searched for the purpose of ascertaining the character of individuals on board, nor can there be allowed any watch by the vessels of any foreign nation over American vessels on the coasts of the United States or the seas adjacent thereto."

Our relations with Mexico are somewhat entangled. The Tehuantepec affair, to which the President barely alludes, is one demanding more attention than our government appears to have given it. The conduct of Mexico, in this affair, has been arbitrary in the extreme, and demands the firm interposition of our government.

In respect to the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, as regards the protection of the northern provinces of Mexico against Indian depredations, it appears from the message of the President, and from the report of the Secretary of War, that everything has been done by our government that the terms of the treaty demand, as interpreted by our government; also, that the depredations said to have been committed are either gross exaggerations or pure fabrications, made with the view of setting up claims for damages against our government. The Secretary of War maintains that we are not liable for any damages, having done all that a fair interpretation of the treaty demands.

The attention of our government has been called, during the past year, to the subject of reciprocal trade between the United States and the British American provinces, and overtures for a convention on the subject have been received from the British minister. Documents, exhibiting these overtures, have been laid before Congress, but have not as yet, we believe, been published. The great importance of this question we have discussed in another paper in this Review.

From this brief sketch of some of our more important external relations, we pass to our internal, commencing with the

FINANCIAL CONDITION OF THE COUNTRY.

We regret that our knowledge of this most important branch of our internal relations, is rendered so imperfect, from the want of the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, which has not yet appeared. We are, on this account, obliged to confine ourselves to such meagre developments as are afforded by the President's message. From this document it appears,

That the aggregate receipts for the last fiscal year amounted to $52,312,979 87; which, with the balance in the Treasury on the 1st July, 1850, gave, as the available means for the year, the sum of $58,917,524 36.

The total expenditures for the same period were		$48,005,878 68
The total imports for the year ending June, 1851, were		215,725,991 00
Of which there were in specie,		4,967,905 00
The exports for the same period were		217,517,130 00
Of which there were of domestic products	$178,546,555	
Foreign goods re-exported	9,738,695	
Specie	29,231,880	
		$217,517,130

Since the 1st December last the payments in cash on account of the public debt, exclusive of interest, have amounted to $7,501,456 56; which, however, includes the sum of $3,242,400 paid under the 12th article of the treaty with Mexico, and the further sum of $2,591,213 45, between the amount of awards to American citizens under the late treaty with Mexico, for which the issue of stock was authorized, but which was paid in cash from the Treasury.

The public debt on the 20th ultimo, exclusive of the stock authorized to be issued to Texas by the act of 9th September, 1850, was $62,560,395 26.

The receipts for the next fiscal year are estimated at $51,800,000, which, with the probable unappropriated balance in the Treasury on the 30th June next, will give as the probable available means for that year, the sum of $63,258,743 09.

The total expenditures for the next fiscal year are estimated at $42,892,299 19, of which there is required for the ordinary purposes of the government, other than those consequent upon the acquisition of our new Territories, and deducting the payments on account of the public debt, the sum of $33,343,198 08; and for the purposes connected directly or indirectly with those Territories, and in the fulfilment of the obligations of the Government, contracted in consequence of their acquisition, the sum of $9,549,101 11.

In the views of the Secretary of the Treasury in reference to the expenditures required for these Territories, shall be met by corresponding action on the part of Congress, and appropriations made in accordance therewith, there will be an estimated unappropriated balance in the Treasury on the 30th June, 1853, of $20,366,443 90, wherewith to meet that portion of the public debt due on the 1st July following, amounting to $6,237 931 35, as well as any appropriations which may be made beyond the estimates.

The value of our exports of breadstuffs and provisions, since 1847, has been on the decrease, as will be seen by the following:

Exports in 1847	$68,701,921
" 1850	26,051,373
" 1851	21,948,653

The decrease in the value of the exports of rice and tobacco, during the last fiscal year, amounts to $1,156,751.

These deficiencies Mr. Fillmore cites as the evil results of our present low tariff, which he would have increased. We do not intend, in this paper, to enter into any discussion of the great party question of the day. According to all statistics, since 1846, our country has been making the most rapid strides in prosperity, and that, too, under the operation of the present tariff. According to Mr. Fillmore's own figures, as given above, our

Available means for 1850 were	$58,917,524
Expenditures for 1850 "	48,005,878

This shows a highly favorable state of things; and if we look at our exports and imports for the same period, we find that the former exceed the latter; thus

Exports for 1850	$217,517,130
Imports for 1850	215,725,991

The commercial statistics of the past year, show that the value of our domestic exports has been increased, says Mr. Fillmore, in the single item of raw cotton by $40,000,000 over the value of that export for the year preceding.

Great importance, too, is attached to the immense exportations of specie. Mr. Fillmore says:

> The exports of specie to liquidate our foreign debt, during the past fiscal year, have been $24,263,979 over the amount of specie imported. The exports of specie, during the first quarter of the present fiscal year, have been $14,651,827. Should specie continue to be exported at this rate for the remaining three quarters of this year, it will drain from our metallic currency, during the year ending 30th June, 1852, the enormous amount of $58,607,308.

He apprehends ruinous consequences from the immense efflux of specie; though as an economist we know that the excess of the efflux over the influx of that article does not prove that our foreign commercial operations are unsound. The excess of specie, exported for a given year, does not prove that the country has not received for it a full equivalent.

The president continues to recommend a modification of the present tariff—a change of *ad valorem* to specific duties. His reasons for this are the numerous frauds that continue to be practised upon the revenue, by "false invoices and undervaluations," together with what he calls "the languishing condition of some of the great interests of the country, caused by over-importations, and consequent depressed prices;" and the failure of obtaining a foreign market for our surplus breadstuffs.

We now pass to a survey of those public affairs which belong to the

DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR.

The Secretary of the Interior is required to exercise "supervisory and appellate powers over the acts of the Commissioner of Patents, of the General Land Office, of Indian Affairs, of Pensions, and of Public Buildings; and also over the accounts of marshals, clerks, and other officers of the courts of the United States; over the officers engaged in taking the census; the inspectors and warden of the Penitentiary of the District of Columbia, and the subject of lead and other mines of the United States. He is also charged with other duties."

The following tabular statement shows the estimates of the department for the fiscal year ending the 30th of June, 1853, with a parallel column, exhibiting those for the year ending 30th of June, 1852. This form of presenting the subject is adopted for the purpose of making a comparison of the estimates of the two years without the trouble of a reference to former reports:

	1852	1853.
Department proper	28,250 00	35,827 50
Land service	836,152 50	1,284,916 47
Indian affairs	2,441,472 66	1,343,276 36
Pension Office	2,624,726 31	1,566,040 00
Census		150,000 00
U. States Courts	592,747 00	672,053 00
Public Buildings	481,275 00	418,504 71
Pauper lunatics	10,000 00	10,000 00
Agricultural statistics	5,500 00	5,500 00
Penitentiary of the District of Col.	11,900 00	9,210 00
Mexican Boundary Survey	100,000 00	200,000 00
Totals	$7.132,023 47	$5,695,328 04

A reference to the aggregate of the two columns will show, that the estimates for the next year are less by $1,436,695 43 than those for the present fiscal year, although they embrace many items of large amount for new objects not embraced in the estimates for the present year; as, for example, $150,000 for the census, and upwards of

$300,000 for surveying the public lands in California.

There appears to have been much greater activity in the *Land Office* during the past year, than was anticipated. It will be recollected that Mr. Corwin confidently predicted, in his report last year, that there would not be land enough sold to pay the expenses of the office. This prediction he made in connection with his view of increasing the tariff. For the past year, the affairs of the office have been as follows:—

Expenses,................	$1,066,457
Receipts for lands sold,.....	2,370,947

The number of acres sold, was 1,846,847. The quantity of land located, during the last fiscal year, with bounty land warrants, 2,454,000 acres, which, added to the quantity sold for cash, makes an aggregate of 4,300,847,49–100 acres. Had the quantity located with warrants during the last fiscal year been disposed of for cash at the minimum price, the aggregate of revenue from sales of the public lands would have been $5,438,447,45. The whole number of warrants issued up to the 1st of November inst., under the Mexican war bounty land law of 11th February, 1847, is 80,781. Of these 66,618 have been located and returned to the General Land Office; and of this latter number 66,200 have been patented. The whole number of warrants issued, up to the same period, under the general bounty land law of September 28, 1850, is 54,201; and of the 3,708 which have been located and returned to the General Land Office, 1,950 had been patented on the 1st ultimo.

The Surveyors General of Oregon and California are now engaged in establishing the principal base and meridian lines in those countries, preliminary to projecting townships.

The Secretary of the Interior, in his last report, proposed that the *mineral lands* of California should be divided into small lots, and sold at public auction. He now withdraws that suggestion, and proposes that those lands be left open, for the present, at least, to all of our citizens.

From the papers of the *Indian Department*, it appears that the tribes in New-York and in Arkansas are living under their now governments, and making progress in civilization. In the Northwest, treaties have been made by which the government has acquired large tracts of land. In Minnesota a large domain, equal in area to the State of New-York, has been acquired. Treaties have been made also with the Indians in California and New-Mexico. It appears that in many instances the Indians fail to vacate the lands which they have sold to the government, and they have to be removed. Many have been removed during the past year, and many are yet to be removed.

Nothing has been done with the Texas Indians, owing to their not being under the control of the general government. They are only subject to Texas.

From the papers of the *Pension* office it appears that the

> "Whole number of pensioners of all classes now on the rolls is 19,611, of whom 13,467 were paid during the first two quarters of the present year, the latest periods to which we have reports. The number added to the rolls during the year was 2,287, and the number of deaths reported, 765. The whole amount expended for pensions during the year ending 30th September, 1851, exclusive of navy pensions, is about $1,439,848."

The Commissioner of Pensions recommends some changes in the present laws, so as to confine pensioners to those who were in actual military service, and to widows and *minor* children of dead soldiers. He also recommends some changes preventing frauds. It appears that,

> "Within the last year two hundred and thirty-one applications for invalid pensions were presented from two of the western states, all of which were authenticated according to the forms of law. But the Commissioner having conceived the suspicion that many of them were fraudulent, caused a confidential agent to visit the neighborhood, and it was ascertained that only sixty-one were just, and that the residue were fraudulent."

He also recommends the

> "Enactment of a law making it a felony to forge, utter or publish as genuine, any forged land warrant, or other evidence of claim against the United States for land, or any endorsement or assignment thereof.
>
> "The Circuit Court of the United States at Columbus, Ohio, recently quashed an indictment against a prisoner for forging a land warrant, on the ground that there was no law of the United States making it a penal offence."

The immense work of digesting the census returns has consumed all the money appropriated for that purpose by Congress, and $150,000 more are required to complete the work.

The expenses of the United States courts are increased $25,000 to meet the requirements of Utah, California and New-Mexico.

The Mexican Boundary Survey, for which there was an appropriation of $100,000 for the past year, requires for the coming year another $100,000, which latter appropriation covers the deficiencies of the last year; so that the actual expense of the coming year will be $60,000 less than for the past year.

> "The joint commission under the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo has been actively engaged in running and marking the boundary line between the United States and Mexico. It was stated, in the last annual report of the Secretary of the Interior, that the initial point on the Pacific, and the point of junction of the Gila with the Colorado river had been determined, and the intervening line, about one hundred and fifty miles in length, run and marked by temporary monuments. Since that time a monument of marble has been erected at the initial point, and permanent landmarks of iron have been placed at suitable distances along the line.
>
> "The initial point on the Rio Grande has also been fixed by the commissioners at latitude 32° 22′, and at the date of the last communication the survey of the line had been made thence westward about 150 miles to the neighborhood of the copper mines."

The subject of an *Agricultural Bureau* comes under the Department of the Interior. The establishment of such a bureau is strongly recommended by the President. No agricultural statistics are given in the present report of the Secretary of the Interior. The subject of agriculture is one of vast importance, and yet, while Congress is constantly doing something to promote manufactures and commerce, it has never done anything directly for agriculture. All the principal governments of Europe have their agricultural bureaus. France has its separate government department of agriculture, connected with which is a bureau of statistics, the results of which are annually published for the benefit of the government and people. Committees are also from time to time appointed by that government to investigate all improvements connected with agriculture, and to collect and distribute seeds, plants, vegetables and fruits. There are also twenty colleges in France, established under the patronage of the government, in which agriculture is taught as a science.

Belgium has also its Agricultural and Statistical Bureau, with an agricultural council of eighteen members.

Prussia has also its Statistical Bureau; and Russia, Austria, Spain and Sweden have all established bureaus for the collection of statistics.

This subject is not a new one in the United States, for Washington himself, while President, recommended to Congress the establishment of an Agricultural Bureau. The fact that more than four-fifths of our population are engaged in agriculture, entitles this subject to the especial attention of Congress.

WAR DEPARTMENT.

The entire army of the United States at the present time, consists of only 10,538 men, including officers of all grades. The actual effective force consists of not more than 8,500 men. Such a standing army for so large a country as ours, is found to be entirely inadequate to the wants of the country; and, accordingly, the General-in-Chief recommends, as indispensably necessary, the creating of an additional regiment of cavalry, and also an increase in the rank and file of the infantry and artillery. When it is considered that so small an army as the present is scattered over a frontier of several thousands of miles in extent, its insufficiency must be apparent. So small a force cannot afford that protection which our remote frontiers require. Our entire force on the Pacific, at the present time, for the protection of all our vast possessions west of the Rocky Mountains, is only 736 men! So small a force in that region is nearly a useless expense to the government; it is so much money thrown away. If we cannot have a larger force there, we had better have none.

On the subject of our obligations to defend the northern frontier of Mexico against the incursions of the Indians dwelling within our borders, as required by the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, the Secretary of War shows, that the United States have done all that that treaty requires—that it never was contemplated that the entire expense and responsibility of defending the Mexican frontiers devolved upon us; that a part of that duty belonged to Mexico, who ought to station troops on her side of the boundary line, as we do on ours; and that in no other way can the frontier be protected from the incursions of Indians.

The expense of the army for the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1851, was	$9,060,268
The estimates for the next year are	7,898,775
Showing a reduction of	$1,161,493

The enormous expenses of the army are ascribed to the following causes: 1st. That more than one-half of the army is stationed on our remote frontiers, and, so far as expenses are concerned, may be considered as in active service in time of war. 2d. That our military posts, which were formerly either on or near navigable rivers, are now far from them, in the interior of the country, or on the coasts of the Pacific. They can, therefore, be reached only by land journeys of hundreds of miles, or by sea-voyages of thousands of miles. Lastly, our military posts have heretofore been situated in fertile regions, which furnished nearly all the supplies for the troops; while now they are in the most unproductive regions in the world, to which all supplies have to be transported over immense distances by land.

The increase of our army expenses, consequent on our new accessions of territory, including Texas, is $4,556,709.

Every possible mode of retrenchment of army expenses has been adopted, and, as will be seen in the preceding statement, an important reduction has been made. The Secretary recommends, as a means of reducing land transportation, the improvement, by government, of the navigation of Red River. He thinks that the government would save, in three years after the improvements in the river were completed, enough to pay the expenses of them. This is a highly important recommendation, which we trust will meet with favor in Congress. The clearing of Red River of its obstructions, would be of immense advantage, not only to the general government, but particularly to Louisiana, Texas, and Arkansas.

As another means of reducing the army expenses, it is recommended that the white inhabitants of all our territories be copiously supplied with arms; also that the predatory incursions of the Indians be repressed by conciliatory means, such as distributing food among them, thereby rendering plunder unnecessary to them for a subsistence.

We pass over the report of the Postmaster-General, it having already been extensively noticed in previous pages of this number of the Review, and will conclude with a glance at the

NAVY DEPARTMENT.

The entire Navy of the United States, at the present time, consists of 77 vessels, as follows:

Ships of the Line	12
Frigates, 1st class	12
" 2d "	2
Sloops of War	22
Brigs	4
Schooners	5
Steamers	14
Storeships and Brigs	6
	77

This force is divided into six squadrons, as follows:

Home Squadron,	Com.	F. A. Parker.
Brazil Squadron,	"	I. McKeever.
Pacific Ocean,	"	Chs. S. McCauley.
Mediterranean,	"	C. W. Morgan.
Coast of Africa,	"	E. A. F. Lavalette.
East Indies,	"	P. F. Voorhees.

In consequence of the inhibition, by Brazil, of the African slave trade, the Secretary of the Navy recommends our squadron to be discontinued, as a permanent force, on the coast of Africa, and that it be removed to the coast of Brazil; and that the home squadron be required to prevent the importation of slaves into the Spanish West India Islands, those and Brazil being the only countries to which slaves are imported.

The different squadrons, during the past year, have had no very active and unusual services to perform. The home squadron was called to prevent unlawful invasions of Cuba, but without success; that of the Mediterranean, has had the pleasant service to perform of rescuing from exile the great Hungarian patriot, scholar and orator, Governor LOUIS KOSSUTH; that of the Pacific, has been engaged in visiting the different ports and islands of the Pacific Ocean; that of the East Indies, in the usual service in those distant seas. One of the ships of that squadron will return home soon, bringing, by order of the department, valuable varieties of the seed or root of the East India sugar cane, and of the tea-plant, with the view of introducing their cultivation into this country.

Ninety officers of the navy have been employed, during the past year, in the coast survey, and the Secretary recommends that that entire service be transferred to the navy.

The great stone dock, at the Brooklyn navy-yard, which was commenced ten years ago, is now nearly completed. It has cost the government $2,146,255. Other dock-yards are in progress.

The Secretary, conceiving that there is a want of adaptation of our present naval laws to the actual state of our naval affairs, proposes several changes in these laws. He recommends an elevation of the ranks of the service; the legalisation of the rank of commodore; and the appointment of two *rear-admirals*—one to be stationed at Washington, and the other at San Francisco—from whom orders can emanate to the squadrons of the Pacific and of the Chinese seas. He also recommends a retired list, for invalids or the superannuated; also a revision of the laws settling the rank of officers.

The great defect, however, of our naval code, is found in its not furnishing any substitute for the abolition of corporal punishment in the navy. This defect has already led to serious evil consequences, and the necessity of applying some remedy is earnestly urged upon Congress.

The naval school at Annapolis is in a flourishing condition, affording "advantages equal those for military education at West Point."

"The Naval Observatory and Hydrographical office have been in active and vigorous operation during the year. A second volume of astronomical observations has been published and already laid before you. The wind and current charts planned by Lieutenant Maury, the superintendent of the observatory, and prosecuted under his direction with much industry, are being extended to the Pacific and Indian oceans. This work is viewed with great interest and satisfaction by our sea-faring communities, and all those interested in the safe and speedy navigation of the ocean. It has materially shortened the passage along the highways by which our commerce passes into and through the southern hemisphere, bringing the ports of those distant parts of the world some ten days and some several weeks nearer to us than before. A letter from the superintendent of the observatory, which accompanies this communication, states the important fact, that vessels sailing from the Atlantic to the Pacific ports of the United States with the instructions afforded by these charts, make the voyage in forty days less, upon the average, than those sailing without them: and that there is reason to hope the time may be still further reduced.

"The expedition for astronomical observations at Santiago de Chili appears, from the reports of Lieutenant Gilliss, to have been actively conducted, and will probably be brought to a close in the latter part of the next year.

"The Nautical Almanac, under the superintendence of Lieutenant Davis, is also in a satisfactory state of progress, and the first publication of the work may be expected to be made in the course of the next fiscal year."

The total expense of the navy to the government for the year ending June 30, 1851, was $9,044,597. The estimates for the year ending July 1, 1853, amount to $8,540,698. These sums include appropriations for extraordinary purposes.

The Secretary recommends the establishment of an United States steam-engine manufactory for fitting out complete United States steamships. He also recommends the establishment, at the navy yard in New-York, of a national bakery to supply the navy with good bread. This is to prevent impositions, the government having lost on bad bread during the past year under the present contract system, money enough to erect the buildings of a national bakery.

Such is an imperfect summary of the various important government documents that have thus far appeared for 1851. They constitute the only authentic, documentary, official materials out of which one can gather the history of the principal affairs of the nation for the past year. Some minor details we have been obliged to omit. For those details, and for a full view of those subjects which we have noticed, we must refer our readers to the documents themselves.

2.—FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC POULTRY.

Our attention has been recently directed to this important branch of rural economy, by seeing a catalogue of foreign fowls, now offered to the public in the poultry estabment of Mr. H. Lawrence, of New-Orleans. That gentleman is engaged in collecting the choicest and rarest species of fowls, for the accommodation of such of our rural citizens as may wish to engage in the business of raising poultry for market, and to whom it is an important object to have the most improved species.

Nothing is more common, in the country, than domestic poultry; and yet it is only very recently that the subject has been regarded in a scientific or economical point of view. Great attention has been bestowed on domestic quadrupeds, of almost every description, while domestic fowls, as an element of agricultural wealth, have received scarcely any attention. Their importance is now beginning to be developed; and both in England and in this country, within a few years past, a lively interest has been awakened. Several valuable works have been written, and a vast amount of scientific information and statistics has been accumulated, from which poultry raising has been reduced to a system, and rendered a highly important branch of agricultural science.

The low estimation in which the poultry-yard has long been held, is owing to a general want of information regarding it. The old notion that fowls are unprofitable to the farmer, is now exploded. The agricultural returns of the United States census—and here we have another proof of the importance of a minute and accurate national census—show that the raising of poultry is a highly important branch of rural economy, and a material element of agricultural national wealth.

The following table, compiled from the census of 1840, exhibits the value of the poultry at that time in the several states:

Maine	$123,171	Kentucky	536,439
New-Hampshire	97,862	Tennessee	581,531
Vermont	176,437	Louisiana	273,314
Massachusetts	540,295	Mississippi	369,481
Rhode-Island	61,492	Alabama	829,220
Connecticut	176,659	Missouri	230,283
New-York	2,373,029	Indiana	393,228
New-Jersey	412,487	Illinois	330,968
Pennsylvania	1,033,172	Michigan	82,730
Delaware	47,465	Arkansas	93 549
Maryland	219,159	Florida	61,007
Virginia	752,467	Wisconsin	16,167
North Carolina	544,125	Iowa	17,101
South Carolina	590,594	Dist. of Colum.	3,092
Georgia	473,158		
Ohio	734,931		$12,176,170

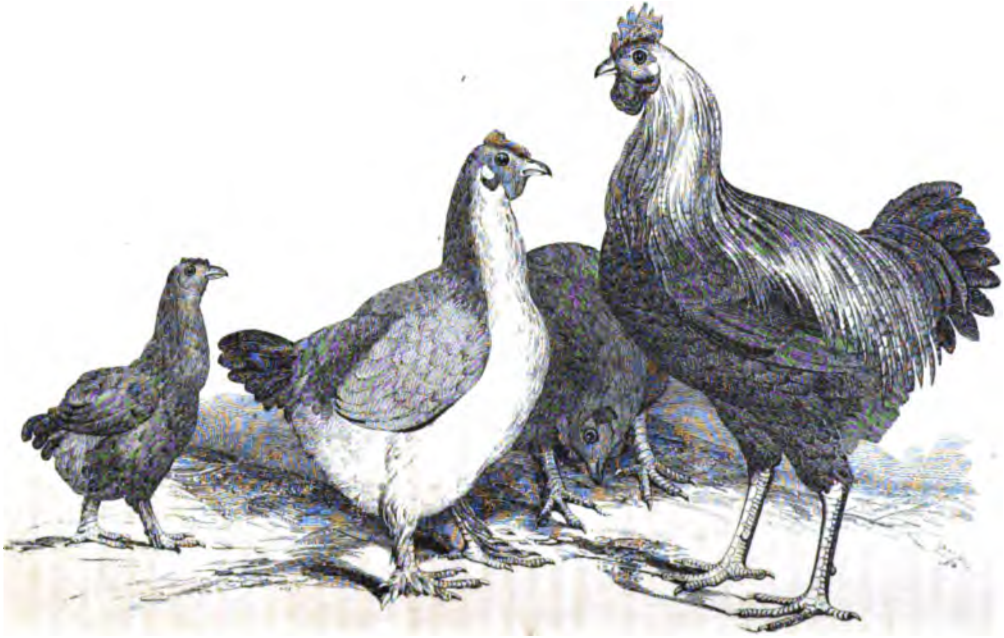
The above table shows, that raising hens and chickens in the United States is no trifling business. The people are waiting impatiently for the census returns for 1851. When they come, they will probably show that the value of the poultry stock of the United States is more than $20,000,000 annually.

From the foregoing table it appears that the value of poultry in the single state of New-York, is more than $2,373,000½ while, according to the United States census, the value of all the sheep of that state is less than that sum. The value of the poultry of New-York is greater even than that of its cattle, and five times greater than that of all its horses and mules.

The amount of poultry sold at a single market, in Boston alone, in 1848, was $674,423; and for the whole city, during that year, it exceeded $1,000,000. We have no accurate statistics for our other large cities, but it is highly probable that the poultry trade, in such cities as New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore and New-Orleans, must be counted by millions for each.

The statistics of the egg trade are equally curious. The city of New-York expends annually for eggs, $1,500,000. It consumes half a million of eggs monthly. The Astor House alone, is said to require a supply of 1,000 eggs a day, for five days in the week, and on Saturdays 2,500.

At a single market, in Boston, there were sold in 1848, 1,129,735 dozens, which, at the average price for the year, amounted to $203,352. For the whole city, during that year, the sales amounted to about $1,000,000.



DR. KERR'S SHANGHAES.

(Five and a half months old, the chick six weeks old.)

In the possession of Henry Lawrence, of New Orleans.

The state of Maine shipped to Boston in 1848, eggs to the amount of $350,000; and a single house in Cincinnati is said to have dealt in them to the extent of $100,000.

We are indebted for these statistics to a work on poultry, by Mr. J. C. Bennett, of Boston. We might extend them much farther, but the foregoing are sufficient to show the importance of the trade of the United States in poultry.

The egg and poultry trade of France exceeds $57,000,000 annually. England has invested in the poultry trade, $50,000,000; France, $73,000,000; and the United States, $15,000,000.

The business of raising poultry, in this country, is left almost entirely to chance. There can be no doubt, that if the same attention was paid to it that is bestowed upon the raising of sheep, hogs, and cattle, the trade would be increased tenfold.

We are glad to see that efforts are beginning to be made in the South to improve this branch of rural economy. The efforts of Mr. Lawrence and others, to introduce the finest species, are praiseworthy, and ought to be encouraged. Mr. L. has obtained the following rare varieties: Red and Buff Shanghaes, very pure; White Shanghaes, a very scarce variety; Cochin-Chinas; large Eagle Fowls, or Imperial Chinese; Poland Fowls, and Chittagongs.

For the information of those who would wish to know something of the natural history of these species, we add the following brief description of each:

The *Shanghae Fowls* are of two varieties, the red and buff, or yellow, and the white. They were originally imported from the city of Shanghae, China, whence their name. The annexed engraving will convey a good idea of their appearance. The plumage of the Yellow Shanghaes is usually of a bright yellow or gold color, variegated with dark brown and red. Their legs are uniformly large, and usually a bright red and yellow or white mixture, sometimes flesh-colored, and very heavily feathered. The tail is short, body well-formed, wings small, and high on the sides; comb single, straight, and serrated. The feathers are rather fine and downy. These fowls grow to a large size, and, when full grown, weigh about nine pounds. The male Shanghae, when full grown, and standing erect, carries his head about on a line with the height of a common flour barrel.

They are very prolific. They commence laying when from five to seven months old, and a single fowl has been known to lay 120 eggs in 125 days. Their eggs are yellow.

The *White Shanghaes* possess all characteristics of the yellow, with the exception of color. The Shanghae fowls command a high price; they bring from $15 to $25 a pair.

The *Cochin China fowl* has been only very recently introduced into Great Britain, by Queen Victoria, who is styled by Mr. Richardson, "that royal patroness of poultry fanciers." These fowls so far exceed in size our ordinary domestic fowls, that persons not conversant with zoology, have referred them to the Bustard family. They are, however, genuine poultry. Some of the males have been known to weigh from thirteen to fourteen pounds. The average weight is from seventeen to twenty pounds the pair.

Their general color is rich glossy brown, a deep bay. On the breast there is "a marking of a blackish color, and of the shape of a horse-shoe." The comb is of a moderate size, serrated, and the wattles are double. The wing is strikingly peculiar; it is jointed, "so that the posterior half can, at pleasure, be doubled up, and brought forward between the anterior half and the body. The bird can do this at pleasure, and the appearance the manœuvre imparts to their form, has procured for them the title of Ostrich fowl."

The Cochin China fowl is very prolific, frequently laying two, and occasionally three, eggs on the same day. The eggs are large, of a chocolate color, and possess a very delicate flavor.

The *Polish fowls* are very beautiful; they wear tufted crests. There are three varieties—the *Spangled Polish*, a bird of rare beauty, its plumage presenting a symmetrical and regular combination of bright orange—a clear white, a brilliant green, and a jetty black—softened down with a rich and pure brown, and every feather being tipped with white, whence the term *spangled*; the *Black Polish*, of a jet black throughout, except the crest, which is a *white* tuft; and the *White Polish*, of a brilliant white throughout, except the crest, which is a jet *black* tuft. The Polish fowls produce large and finely-flavored eggs.

Lastly, the *Chittagongs*. These are the most remarkable, for size and beauty, of all the varieties. The Chittagong is the true *Gallus Giganteus* of the zoologists, and excites astonishment and admiration in all who behold it. It is a native of Sumatra. The male is frequently so tall as to be able to pick crumbs without difficulty from an ordinary dinner table, and weigh from ten to fourteen pounds. The average weight of a pair is about twenty-two pounds. They are the largest domestic fowls in the world, of various colors, and produce large rich eggs.

3.—LAFITTE.

We referred in our last to the statement of parties in New-Orleans, that Lafitte was not present at the battle of New-Orleans, as has been commonly supposed. That he was there is sustained by a writer in the National Intelligencer, dated Alabama, etc., as we find in the following extract. We trust that, as Gen. Butler has been referred to, he will settle this mooted point.

> In the columns of the "National Intelligencer," of the 28th instant, I noticed an article, in which it is said: It has been currently believed, on the authority of novelists, &c., that the celebrated Lafitte was a pirate, and fought in the American ranks at New-Orleans, and that both of these facts are now discredited on the testimony of certain persons in New-Orleans. Whoever knows personally anything of Lafitte, as stated, could not have asserted any such thing. The writer of this had the honor of serving under General Jackson at the siege of New-Orleans, as an officer; saw Lafitte every day, and knew him personally. He was not in the first battle fought with the British forces on the night of the 23d of December, 1814; but was at the breastworks called *Jackson's lines* immediately thereafter, where he remained until the retreat of the enemy and the breaking up of the American camp. He was placed with his men by Gen. Jackson—who had full confidence in his skill, ability, and fidelity to the American cause—in command of a battery of two 24 or 32 pounder cannon, not far from the river, and between the 7th United States Infantry, Major Piere and Planche's battalion of city volunteers; and I affirm that a more skilful artillerist, a braver or more determined officer, soldier, or one who rendered more effective service during the siege, was not in Jackson's army. And, pirate or blacksmith, the services he rendered the American cause should not be denied, blotted out, or buried in oblivion, now that he is no more, and perhaps has left none behind to defend him.
>
> What I have stated is on my own personal knowledge, and acted under my own eye; and is well known to Gen. Wm. O. Butler, of Kentucky, at that time a captain in the 44th Infantry.

4.—HOW THE SOUTH JOGS ON.

A planter in Mississippi, who has no great horror of paper *resolutions*, etc., writes us a long letter in regard to the true malady which afflicts the South. We give an extract, which, unfortunately, has more truth than poetry in it:

> Let the cotton planters, for three years' dare to make their own corn, pork, beef' mutton and wool—and they will see cotton at a certain price of 12 cents, and see good corn-houses, full barns, fine pastures, thrift, and all else indicative of prosperity. In lieu of which, what did you see in your last summer's tour? Did you see any little 12 by 6 log cribs, covered with four feet boards? Any fodder stacks, with the Mississippi mud? A pasture for calves, without grass or water? Sheep, with the one-half of each without wool? Fences, as if the rails had fallen from above, and happened to light upon each other? Men, riding with rope bridle reins? It boots it not what I am, whether the one thing or the other. Are these things true or false? Has the age of false prophets and bad counsellors passed?

5.—PUBLIC LANDS OF THE UNITED STATES.

A very serious error crept into the appendix of our rail-road address, published in the August number. In speaking of the extent of public lands in the states, we quoted from the official documents, and copied the figures from the army column. The result is, that they show the whole area of the states, aud not the unoccupied domain. By reference to the index of our volumes the reader can readily inform himself of the true figures, should he have need of them. We regret that this error was not discovered in time for the press.

6.—SUBSCRIBERS AND DUNS.

Every now and then a subscriber flares up and stops his Review, because his bill is modestly enclosed in the number for the second or the third time, when not attended to. He writes back, "I have received your frequent duns," etc., etc. Another is called upon again, after he has once paid—he forgets the difficulty of keeping 4,000 accounts—forgets that agents frequently receive amounts without returning for several months, and sometimes not at all—forgets that bills may be given out for collection before he has paid, and that it is impossible to communicate with the agent to prevent his presenting them, etc., etc. Yet the editor gets all the blame, who knows nothing about it, and who has, during six years, never had an instance of a subscriber paying twice over, that it was not at once refunded; nor of a subscriber paying to an agent, however irresponsible, or even without the slightest shadow of authority—without the receipt being admitted, and the work sent for twelve months. At the end of the year the subscriber perhaps stops, and thus we have had our labor and our pains, and spent our money and given him a book of 1200 pages, all *free gratis*, etc. Now this may be public spirited in us, and all that sort of thing, but when we get abuse too, as it sometimes happens, we do repine over the ills that flesh is heir to, and editors' flesh, the worst in the world. Let us deal kindly by each other. If you receive a bill *twice*, or a "dun," as you invariably call it, just drop a line, good-humoredly, to the editor, and a hundred to one you will find him more quick to give than to receive, and quite indisposed to take advantage, even in the smallest particular. This much we say, from a better knowledge of him than you can, by any possibility, have.

7.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

The Queens of Scotland and English Princesses. By Agnes Strickland, author of the Lives of the Queens of England, Vol. II. Harper & Brothers. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

In our last, we noticed the first volume of this intended series. The second contains the Life of Mary of Lorraine, and that of Lady Margaret Douglas, Countess of Lennox. The work is handsomely issued, and will, no doubt, be as popular as the others from the same distinguished source.

Memoirs of the Life and Writings of Dr. Chalmers. By his Son-in-law, Rev. William Hanna, in Three Volumes. Harper & Brothers, New-York. Morgan, New-Orleans. 1851.

We have received the third volume, which includes that period of his life subsequent to the age of forty-three, or from the time of his appointment to the chair of theology at Edinburgh. Contrary to the editor's original intention, he has concluded to add a fourth volume, in order not to contract the scale of narrative, and to preserve a great deal of interesting material. The appendix to the third volume contains many interesting letters and speeches.

Moby Dick, or the Whale. By Herman Melville. This is another of the attractive series of sea stories, by Mr. Melville, which embraces, "Typee," "Omoo," "Redburn," "Mardi," &c. The English critics are extravagant in their praises of them. Blackwood declares that, after reading these, all other sea stories must appear flat and unprofitable. The Times thinks they will ever have greedy devourers. Douglas Jerrold finds in them much of the charm which has made Robinson Crusoe immortal—life-like description, &c. Speaking of Mardi, the Literary World, New-York, says, "There is a world of poetical, thoughtful, ingenious, moral writing in it, exhibiting the most various reflection and reading. It is impossible not to be hurried away delightfully with the author from chapter to chapter of his most attractive books. New-York: Harper & Brothers. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan.

Historical Sketches of North Carolina, from 1684 to 1851. By John H. Wheeler, late Treasurer of the State. The author informs us that he has forwarded to our address this work, which, as soon as received, we shall gladly examine, and review at length. We have seen a notice in which it is stated, he proves incontestably that North Carolina was the first state upon which the Anglo-Saxons landed. He also places the Mecklenburg declaration of May, 1775, beyond cavil.

THE FOREIGN REVIEWS.—Edinburgh Review for October, 1851; London Quarterly, October, 1851; Westminster, October, 1851; Blackwood. We believe that the enterprise of Leonard Scott & Co., in these admirable republications, has been crowned with most abundant success, which is highly creditable to the taste and judgment of the American reading public. They are furnished at less than one-half of the English prices.

Bankers' Magazine for December. Contents: Pressures, Panics, &c.; Private Banking in New-York, 1851; Legal Miscellany; American lock controversy in England; new varieties of gold and silver coin; notes on coins; decisions of Supreme Court U. States on Banking digested; Bank Statistics; Debts and Finances of European Governments; Notes on money market, &c. Published by J. Smith Homans, New-York.

The publisher of the Bankers' Magazine gives notice that the following important and nteresting works will be embodied in "*The Bankers' Magazine and Statistical Register,*" for the year beginning July, 1851, and ending June 1852:

I. New varieties of Gold and Silver Coins and Bullion.—1. Recent Coins of the World. 2. Recent Counterfeit Coins. 3. Gold from California. 4. Recapitulation of the Net Mint Value of Gold and Silver Coins, issued within twenty-five years. 5. Silver from Lake Superior. 6. Table of Correspondence between Pennyweights and Grains, and the decimal fractions of a Troy Ounce. 7. Comparison of American and Foreign Weights used for Precious Metals. 8. Bulk and Packing of Precious Metals. 9. Determination of the Value of a Specimen of Gold or Silver in its Native Rock or Gaugue. 10. Transaction of Business at the Mint. By Jacob R. Eckfeldt and W. E. Dubois, Assayers of the United States Mint.

II. The American Law of Banking. A Synopsis of the Decisions of the higher Courts of every state in the Union; upon the subjects of Banking, Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes, Damages on Bills, Usury, Notaries Public, &c. The decisions of each state will be arranged by themselves, commencing with Maine; to be followed in order by New-Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New-York, &c.

III. History of Banking and Currency. By W. J. Lawson, Esq.; a recent English Work.

IV. Historical Sketches of the Early Currency among the American Colonies.

8.—OUR RAIL-ROAD STATISTICS, ETC.

We have received a great many valuable rail-road reports, addresses, &c., during the last month, but must defer their notice to our next, when we shall club a great deal that we have upon this subject together. The rail-road fever appears to be at its height in the South-west, and we are sanguine enough to expect the happiest results. One comfortable reflection we find in the fact, that the volumes of the Review seem to have become a magazine, from which is forged much of the thunder employed at present in waking up the public mind. Scarcely a document is issued, but what we trace our facts and figures in their various ramifications. Sometimes we are credited with these, but most often they are appropriated wholesale without the slightest acknowledgment. Now, gentlemen rail-road men, we do not care a pinch of snuff for the credit of having done anything, so that it is done; but we *do* care for the influence and circulation of the Review, which a breath of yours would materially aid. Nobody expects you to *invent* rail-road facts; therefore, when you draw upon *our* repository, why not give the volume or page, or, at least, say "*Review, passim.*" We could put our finger upon addresses—yea, we have them on the table now—most full and elaborate, in which whole columns of our figures, and paragraphs verbatim literatim, &c., are taken without one "compunctious visiting." Now think of our midnight lamp, and then repent in sackcloth. If you find our work so useful, do you begrudge the circulation you could add to it by simply acknowledging the fact? Come, come, gentlemen—"honor bright."

Your friend
C S Tripler

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Gallery of Pictures & Engravings

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ART. I.—OUR COMMERCIAL RELATIONS WITH BRITISH AMERICAN COLONIES.

The subject of our commercial relations with the British North American Colonies, namely, Canada, New-Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward's Island, is one of immense and increasing importance. It is one, too, that has occupied a large share of the diplomatic attention of our government, and has led to much legislation, from time to time, on the part of both Great Britain and the United States.

We propose to discuss this important and highly interesting subject under the three following heads:

I. The present state of our commercial relations with the British American Colonies.

II. The present character and amount of our trade with those colonies.

III. How our trade with those colonies can be improved.

I. Immediately after the peace of 1783, by which England acknowledged the independence of the United States, the subject of our commercial relations with the British American Colonies, in the North, began to be agitated by the British government; and if the wise counsels of the great William Pitt, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, had been heeded, our commerce with those colonies would have then been placed on a basis, which, while it secured peace and harmony between the two countries, would have rendered our present commerce immensely greater than it is.

Mr. Pitt contended, in the British parliament, for establishing our intercourse with Great Britain and her colonies on the most liberal and extensive principles of reciprocal benefit to both countries; and for this purpose he actually introduced into parliament a bill, as preliminary to further and more liberal legislation, for abolishing all prohibitions and restrictions of intercourse then existing, and for placing our trade with the colonies on the same footing as that of the mother country with them.

The liberal policy of Mr. Pitt was completely defeated by the shortsighted enemies of America, and of their own best interests, in the British parliament, and the whole subject of the regulation of our trade with England and its colonies was placed at the discretion of the crown. Since that time, England has labored to wrest from us, as much as possible, all the advantages of trade with her colonies, while our government has contended for a fair reciprocity and equal competition.

It is a curious circumstance in the commercial history of England, showing how completely that power is governed by her own selfish interests, and how flexible her policy is, that, in 1807, when our Congress passed the embargo law, England immediately authorized the governors of all the British American Colonies to open their ports to American vessels, thus abandoning in war an interdict which she had promulgated in peace; for, from 1783 till the time of our embargo in 1807, our vessels had been excluded from the ports of the British colonies. This extraordinary movement on the part of England showed the immense importance, the indispensableness, in fact, of our trade to the British colonies.

The first successful attempt to improve our commercial relations with the British American Colonies was made by President Jackson, in 1829, when he instructed Mr. McLane, our minister at St. James's, to open negotiations on the subject, the result of which was, that our ports of entry were opened to British and British colonial vessels, while all *free* colonial ports were opened to ours; but still the duties in the colonial ports were higher than ours; and besides, the *free* colonial ports were few in number, compared with those that were not free. Thus, while all of our ports were opened to British vessels, only a few colonial ports were opened to ours. Thus was Mr. McLane completely outwitted by British diplomatists. The advantage was entirely on the side of the British, as was shown by the operation of the new regulations. The increase of British tonnage in our ports was ten times greater than that of our own in the colonial ports; for British vessels could enter all the colonial ports, while we could enter only a few.

This great disadvantage on our part became a subject of loud complaint among our citizens, and petitions were presented to Congress by the citizens of New-Orleans, Boston, and other ports of the Union, calling for a modification of the regulations governing our trade with the British American Colonies.

Nothing, however, was effected, until the recent changes of the navigation laws of England, in 1849; but still, although the effect of Mr. McLane's negotiations was unequal, our trade has steadily and greatly increased, since 1829, in consequence of these negotiations.

At present, all discriminating duties in the British colonial ports are abolished. "American and other foreign manufactures are now admitted into the British North American Colonies, and in many of the West India colonies, on the same terms as British goods. The tariff of imports, however, in the different colonies varies, each colony being allowed to regulate its own tariff, provided no discriminations are made.

The tariff duties on imports into the different British American Colonies, does not differ much from the following statement:

On agricultural products	20	per cent.
Manufactures	12½	" "
Raw materials	2½	" "
Groceries, specific	18 to 75	" "

The system of free-ports, into which ports our vessels are allowed to enter only, is still kept up; and besides this unfair regulation, there is another equally, if not more annoying. It is, that while American vessels may enter all the lake and river ports in Canada, west of St. Regis, on the St. Lawrence River, they are not permitted to descend that river lower than Montreal, without special permission from the government. They are not allowed to pass out to sea.

There is also another regulation which appears somewhat whimsical; it is, that while an American vessel is allowed to sail from a colonial port to any other colonial port, or to Great Britain, with colonial or other produce, and to enter all colonial ports where there is a custom-house officer, loading and discharging its cargo, it is not allowed to sail from one port to another port in the same colony, *except in ballast.*

It is not a little singular, that each of the British American Colonies should have its own separate tariff, thus creating a restraint on the trade of one of them with another. A vessel sailing from Nova Scotia to a port in New-Brunswick, must pay a tariff duty in the latter port, and *vice versa.* The inconvenience and ruinous effects that would attend such a system in the United States, between the different states, is apparent to every American; and yet the enlightened colonial subjects of Queen Victoria cannot see them. Our perfect freedom from all restraints upon our internal trade, is one of the great sources of our prosperity. If each of our states had its separate tariff system of duties, all our state lines would be studded with custom-houses, and each state would have to maintain an army of custom-house officers! Smuggling, then, would become a virtue, and the beauties of the tariff system would then be fully developed. With our prosperous example of perfect exemption from all state tariffs fully before their eyes, it is not a little surprising that our neighbors of the British American Colonies should continue such a system. But some in this world either cannot see, or will not see; and so they have to suffer the consequences.

With this brief account of the present condition of our commercial relations with the British American colonies, we now proceed to consider—

II. *The present character and amount of our trade with those colonies.*

The first report made to our government, on the subject of our trade with the British American Colonies, was ordered, we believe, by the Hon. Mr. Meredith; and the second by Mr. T. Corwin, from which we derive many of the facts and details which are contained in this paper.

All of our information regarding trade is derived from custom-house returns; but as these returns are, at best, only approximations, and almost invariably far below the real truth, in respect to values, great allowance must be made, in determining from those returns the actual amount of trade. It is stated in Mr. Corwin's report, that if 20 per cent. were added to the custom-house returns, in determining the amount of our trade with the British American Colonies, it would not be too great an addition.

It is to be borne in mind that, in this paper, we confine ourselves to the trade of this country alone with the British American Colonies.

The trade of this country, by sea, with those colonies, is carried on chiefly by British vessels, owing to our vessels, by the convention of 1830, being restricted only to a certain number of what are called free colonial ports, while British vessels may enter all ports both of the colonies and of this country.

The total exports to the colonies, from the United States, in 1840, were $6,100,501, which, in 1850, had increased to $9,549,035, an increase of more than 50 per cent. in ten years.

In 1849, our imports to the colonies were as follows:

To Canada	$4,971,420
New-Brunswick	1,058,248
Nova Scotia	1,411,828
Newfoundland	935.400
Prince Edward's Island	65,524
	$8,442,420

We will endeavor to give some details regarding our trade with each of the above colonies.

CANADA.

Canada has only two ports for sea commerce, Montreal and Quebec; but as these are not free ports, our imports reach them only by British vessels from the sea, or by American vessels from the lakes.

The articles imported from the United States into Canada, are: tobacco, sugar, molasses, maize, pork, coal, salt, American manufactures of cotton sheetings and shirtings, warp yarn, wadding, batting, plain and printed calicoes, satinets, .woolens, cassimeres, kerseys, leather manufactures, doeskins, machinery, paints, oils, edge tools, agricultural implements, India rubber manufactures; also, large quantities of tea, coffee, and other foreign products, under the drawback law, consisting chiefly of sugars, cigars, dried fruits, wines, hides, and hardware.

The exports from Canada to the United States consist of lumber, wheat, flour, vegetables, seeds, ashes, wool, eggs, and coarse grains for distilling. Timber and lumber are, and ever have been, the great staple exports of Canada. The lumber trade of Canada, in 1846, amounted to $6,000,000. Canada now supplies one-third of all the lumber used in the Hudson River markets; and its lumber trade is rapidly increasing.

The inland exports of Canada to the United States, in 1848, were about $3,000,000. These inland exports have been materially increased by the late changes in the commercial policy of England, by those in the provincial and United States tariffs, and by the United States draw-back law.

Of these $3,000,000 of exports, $250,000 worth went to New-York for re-shipment to Great Britain, under the drawback law.

The returns of the trade of Canada with this country, for the year ending January 5, 1851, show that the trade is in a highly prosperous condition, and rapidly increasing. They are as follows:

Imports from the United States,	$7,404,800
Exports to the United States,	5,813,500

This shows what certain short-sighted political economists call a "balance of trade" against Canada; but we have no complaints from the Canadians of an "alarming balance of trade," but, on the contrary, the most ample evidence of their rapidly increasing prosperity. It would be a sorry state of affairs, indeed, if the outgoes were greater than the incomes; or if they only just balanced each other; for, in the former case, a decline of prosperity, a ruinous retrogradation, would be manifest; and in the latter, a miserable unprogressiveness in commercial affairs.

The inland trade of Canada with this country has had to contend with the restrictive and unnatural policy of a host of prohibition laws, passed by the British parliament; together with colonial and United States tariffs, which have, to a great extent, checked it, to the injury of both countries.

NEW-BRUNSWICK.

Next to Canada, our trade with New-Brunswick is the most important. Bordering on Maine, a species of inland traffic exists between Maine and New-Brunswick, on the Upper St. John, and on the St. Croix River, similar to that carried on between Canada and the Americans in the Niagara district. Since the settlement of the north-eastern boundary question, our trade with New-Brunswick has greatly increased. This trade is chiefly in lumber. The lumber trade of the St. John River, on the American territory, has been about $800,000 during the last five years.

The staple exports of New-Brunswick are timber, lumber, the produce of its fisheries, coal, asphaltum, gypsum, grindstones, and manganese. Ship-building is also carried on extensively. Large numbers of vessels, of all sizes, are annually built for foreign markets. Ship-building is the staple manufacture of New-Brunswick. It is said that vessels of the same quality, in every respect as our best, can be built there for two-thirds of the cost in the United States.

The entire trade of New-Brunswick with the United States may be stated as follows, for 1850:

Imports from the United States,	$2,000,000
Exports to the United States,	200,000

NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

The exports of these colonies are the same as those of New-Brunswick, with the addition of agricultural products. The amount of their trade with this country annually is nearly as follows:

Imports from the United States,	$1,800,000
Exports to the United States,	900,000

Ship-building is also extensively carried on in these colonies. In 1849, they manufactured 221 vessels. They have 34 free ports.

NEWFOUNDLAND.

The staple products of this island are furnished by its fisheries to which may be added its furs and skins from Labrador, and its seal fisheries. The gross amount of exports from this island, in 1849, to all parts of the world, was about $4,000,000. In 1827, our trade with the island was absolutely nothing. It is now nearly as follows:

Imports from the United States,	$1,000,000
Exports to the United States,	78,000

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

The products of this island are chiefly agricultural; its chief exports being grains, flour, vegetables, beef, pork, and animals. But little fish is exported. Our trade with this island is very small:

Imports from the United States,	$100,000
Exports to the United States,	6,000

The shores of Newfoundland, Prince Edward's Island, Cape Breton, and Nova Scotia, swarm with fishermen, but Americans are not allowed to fish within three marine miles of the land. Such is the stipulation agreed upon, to exist *forever*, in our treaty of 1818 with England. This arrangement, it was thought by John Bull, would effectually guard him against any intrusions; but it is now found, that either from the superior diligence and skill of the Americans, or because the fish bite better at that distance from the shore, the Americans catch more fish than the English. The latter complain bitterly, and annoy the Americans when they can. As the treaty of 1818 does not specify the points from which the three marine miles shall be measured, the English, wishing to push the Americans as far out to sea as possible, contend that the prescribed distance of three miles should be measured from the head-lands, many of which project a long distance into the ocean. This subject has been several times made a matter of negotiation, and is not yet decided. As late as 1845, it was a subject of inquiry on the part of our minister at St. James, Mr. Stephenson, but nothing was done. The legislatures of Nova Scotia, Newfoundland, and Prince Edward's Island, have petitioned the British parliament on the subject, but without relief.

Nova Scotia furnishes the largest amount of fish to the United States. In 1849, the quantity sent from Halifax alone to the United States was, of pickled fish, 100,800 barrels. In 1847, Halifax exported hither 124,565 barrels of mackerel, besides large quantities of salmon, herring, and codfish.

We will now proceed to consider—

III. *How our trade with the British American Colonies can be improved.*

The great impediment to our commerce with the British American Colonies is that presented by the present foolish and impolitic commercial enactments and treaties both of England and of this country, to which we should also add the colonial tariffs. If these were all swept away, as they should be, the present trade would be immediately greatly increased, and greatly to the profit, of course, of both countries.

The true object of all commercial legislation should be to facilitate commerce; but unfortunately for the world, the progress of trade has always been checked, if not altogether stopped, by the ignorant intermeddling of governments and legislatures. We say ignorant, because a correct understanding of the principles of political economy and the laws of trade would teach legislators that all attempts "to regulate trade" tend only to diminish those very advantages which they hope to acquire by their legislation. They proceed on the false principle that trade is a thing to be regulated, which is the same thing as saying that there are no natural principles which govern trade, and that therefore they must be supplied by legislation. Ignorance of political economy and the selfishness and cupidity of nations, have done more to retard commerce and civilization than all other causes combined. The laws of trade are just as fixed and unalterable as those that preside over the motions of the planetary masses, or that regulate chemical affinities; and it is just as absurd to attempt to modify or regulate the former by legislation as the latter. And yet there are legislators in all countries who believe that Nature's laws governing trade are defective, and need patching.

To such a belief must we ascribe all the present tariff laws and commercial restrictions that exist, for the regulation of the trade between Great Britain and this country; and the entire past history of the commerce of the two nations clearly shows, that if these were all swept away, their commerce would soon attain a degree of prosperity which it never can attain under the present system.

Every removal of restrictions on trade has invariably and speedily led to increasing commercial prosperity; whence, we may reasonably infer, that a removal of all restrictions would make our commercial prosperity complete.

It was thought a very wise remark of the great Mr. Canning, when he observed, in 1826, that "to allow a foreign ship to enter colonial ports is a boon." A boon, indeed! and quite as great a boon to England as to America, although Mr. Canning could not see how. Great as he was, he never learned the truth, that a perfectly free trade between two countries could not benefit one without equally benefiting the other. It is not less a truth in trade than in physics, that action and re-action are equal. Of the truth of this, the history of commerce furnishes a thousand striking demonstrations.

The foolish restrictions imposed upon commerce—and we can call them nothing else but foolish—deprive nations of a thousand mutual advantages, and check and distort the developments of humanity and the progress of civilization. The truth of this remark is illustrated by the character of our present commercial relations with Britain and its colonies. Here, neighboring to us, in the British American Colonies, is a population of near 3,000,000 of people, industrious, intelligent, enterprising, and occupying a country of more than

500,000 square miles, with a healthy invigorating climate, and of the most valuable and superabundant agricultural, mineral, and manufacturing resources. Its facilities for river and lake navigation are unparalleled. It is watered throughout by streams affording an unlimited amount of water power; its fisheries are the most valuable in the world; its seacoast is indented with numerous admirable harbors. And to these unsurpassed physical capabilities we may add a truly vast and imposing system of internal improvements, projected and completed for the purpose of overcoming the natural impediments of the St. Lawrence River and the Falls of Niagara, and thus connecting the ocean with the great western lakes. These vast improvements, by which a vessel of 300 tons burthen, and capable of carrying 3,000 barrels of flour, and of a draft of nine feet water, can now, but for certain enactments of wise legislators, pass from the harbor of Chicago to the ocean, and thence to any part of the globe, reflect the highest credit on the intelligence, industry, and enterprise of the Canadian people, shackled as they are by the policy and nature of a ruling monarchical government 3,000 miles off. The difference between Canada and this country is striking; and we can only ascribe it to the difference in the form of government, for we have abundant evidence that the energies of the Canadians would have made them a very different people, but for their government.

To gratify her fondness for "regulating trade" and imposing tariffs, England has ever kept the St. Lawrence, the great outlet of Canadian commerce, closed to all but her own vessels. By thus doing, she has inflicted immense evil upon the Canadians and herself, while she has thus stimulated the energies of *our* people to devise means of overcoming the bar to a more free intercourse, interposed by the closing of that river. The trade of the Canadas is a price for which our people—we do not say our government—have long contended. They have succeeded at last. The Mississippi valley is not the sole abdomen of plenty that the energies and enterprise of our people have subjected to a commercial paracentesis. The operation of "tapping" the Canadas, as well as the Mississippi valley, has engaged the attention of our people for years; and they have at last succeeded in opening no less than six broad channels, through which the wealth of the Canadas is now flowing, namely,—the Erie Canal, the Champlain Canal, the Ogdensburg and Boston, and the Buffalo and Boston rail-roads, and the Erie and New-York Rail-road, and the Montreal and Portland rail-roads.

These outlets to Canadian and Western trade now render the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, below Montreal, a matter of less moment; and the more so, because the St. Lawrence, even though its navigation were free, is closed by ice for several months in the year.

There is but one course now left by which our trade with the British American Colonies can be improved, and that is by reciprocal free trade. The Canadian government has generously taken the first step in this important matter, by proposing to our government to establish reciprocal free trade in certain articles, the products of both countries. This is a liberal offer, and we do not see how our government can refuse to accept it. It recommends itself strongly to our best interests, and we cannot reject the offer without withholding from ourselves the highest commercial advantages.

Although the subject of reciprocal free trade with Canada has long been agitated, we do not know of a single valid objection that can be raised against it, once the measure has been sanctioned by the United States House of Representatives.

It is admitted by all, that the perfectly unrestrained commerce existing between the several states of this Union, has been a very prominent cause of our national prosperity; and from this it is quite natural to infer, that by extending this unrestrained commerce to the British American Colonies, another powerful element of prosperity would be gained. Canada is now willing to withdraw her part of the restrictions: and it now remains for us to say, whether we will deny ourselves the immense advantages that would result to us from a free intercourse with our colonial neighbors. Such an arrangement would make our trade with the British American Colonies only a portion of our home internal trade; and it is admitted, by all political economists, that the home trade of a country is vastly more important than its foreign. This is true, at least of our own country; for our internal trade averages $92 for each individual of our population, while our foreign trade is only $7 for each individual.

Even under the present unnatural restrictive system, the latest returns show that we export more of our domestic manufactures to Canada alone than to any other country. Our exports to Canada alone, in 1850, were equal to the whole amount exported to Sweden, Prussia, Holland, Portugal and Mexico.

Such are the advantages which our great Atlantic cities would afford to the colonial merchants for trade, if the existing tariff restrictions were removed, that the system, heretofore pursued by them, of importing direct from foreign ports, would be abandoned, and they would make all their purchases in our cities. Under our present tariff, however, of 20 per cent., they cannot do this, since the high duties prevent them from exchanging, in our markets, their products for ours. If they buy now in our Atlantic cities, it is only by bank drafts, specie, or their equivalents; but this causes such a drain upon their banks, that their trade with us is very much embarrassed and limited. If we would have the 3,000,000 of our British colonial neighbors trade with us, we must allow them to bring their products into our markets, without paying a duty of 20 per cent., which duty at present amounts to a prohibition. It also leads to a vast deal of smuggling along our entire and extensive northern frontier. It is highly probable, that the amount of goods annually smuggled from both countries across the line, is nearly, if not quite equal to the amount which pays duty; for the frontier is so extensive, and the population so dense, on both sides, that it would require an army of custom-house officers and a fleet of revenue cutters to prevent it. Smuggling is called "a demoralizing traffic;" but as the right of trade is a natural right, and as smuggling is only the natural means of asserting this natural right, it may well be questioned, whether it is not rather the tariff which is "demoralizing," than the business of smuggling. Be this as it may, it is certain that high duties operate as a bounty for smugglers. Mr. J. D. Andrews, the United States Consul at Saint John, New-Brunswick, in his very able report to our government, on the trade, commerce, and resources of the British North American Colonies, from which we have taken many of the facts contained in this paper, very significantly observes, in speaking of "the necessity of a thorough remodeling of our lake-port custom-houses, as follows :

> "To one fact I deem it my duty specially to call your attention, viz. : the practice, in several inland ports, for each collector, on retiring from office, to carry away with him the books and accounts, on the plea, that having paid for the stationery from his private funds, they are private property, the government not making any allowance for this item of public expenditure."

Undoubtedly those "books and accounts," if suffered to see the light, would tell a tale ! They would illustrate, in a most striking manner, "the demoralizing effects" of tariffs upon custom-house officers and others.

The entire line of our northern frontier, including Lake Champlain, open for smuggling and bribery of custom-house officers, is nearly 5,000 miles in length.

The system of reciprocal free trade, proposed by the Canadians, is not subject to the objections made to a transatlantic free trade by the friends of protective tariffs. The American protective policy is defended mainly on the ground that we should be protected against the advantages which the European manufacturer has over us, in the abundance and cheapness of his capital and labor ; and that we should be relieved from the fluctuations of foreign trade. But none of these reasons will justify a tariff to protect us against colonial producers or manufacturers ; for they have not the advantage, over us, of more abundant and cheaper capital and labor. The prices of labor in the British American Colonies are nearly if not quite as high, as in this country. What we want most is a free outlet for our surplus products.

It would be easy to refute the many frivolous objects which the advocates of protective tariffs make to reciprocal free trade with Canada, and the other British colonies. We will only say, that, in considering large commercial questions, it is quite unworthy of a great nation to enter into petty calculations of the advantages it gives and takes in trade. The enlightened and liberal views of Mr. Pitt, in 1782, who contended for an "equal and honest reciprocity" in trade between the two countries, are the only ones worthy of a great nation like ours.

In return for this reciprocity of trade with us, Canada proposes to open the navigation of the St. Lawrence. This would certainly be a valuable acquisition to us, as is proved by the numerous petitions of our citizens in Michigan, Wisconsin, Indiana, Ohio, and New-York, (who certainly are the best judges,) presented to Congress, praying for the adoption of measures to have that river opened to the shipping of the lakes. If there was no advantage in having that river opened, such petitions would not appear in Congress.

Although the artificial outlets to the upper lake and Canadian commerce are numerous, yet the St. Lawrence has some important advantages over these. If the navigation of that river was free, all our shipping on all the lakes, from Chicago to Oswego, could pass down to the ocean with full cargoes.

The St. Lawrence is to the North and West, what the Mississippi is to the South and West. The St. Lawrence has a course of 1800 miles, and drains a basin of 1,000,000 of square miles. It is the natural outlet of Michigan, a portion of Wisconsin, Illinois and Indiana, of northern Ohio, northern Pennsylvania, northern and western New-York, and of western Vermont—a vast district of country, comprising the principal portion of the wheat-growing region of the United States. According to Mr. Buel's able report on the free navigation of the St. Lawrence, the trade in wheat in this vast region, in 1841, amounted to 2,780,000. In 1847 it had risen to 10,688,514 bushels, an increase of 17 per cent. per annum. If this same rate of increase were to continue till 1857, the value of the wheat, then, in the valley of the St. Lawrence, at the present prices, would be over $170,000,000.

As commerce always seeks the shortest routes, it may be interesting to consider the advantages which the free navigation of the St. Lawrence would afford in this respect.

A glance at the map will show that the shortest route to Europe, from the heart of North America, is by this river. The shortest route from New-Orleans to Liverpool is up the Mississippi and Ohio to Pittsburg, and thence to Lake Erie, and down the St. Lawrence. The route to Europe, from all the lake-ports, by way of the St. Lawrence, is several hundred miles nearer than by any other route. This is one important advantage to our north-western trade, which, added to there being no unloading of cargoes in the whole route, renders the free navigation of the St. Lawrence a matter highly desirable to the North-west.

If the St. Lawrence was open to our vessels, it is highly probable that vast quantities of the products of the Mississippi valley would find their way to Europe by that route; for when once on shipboard at Chicago, or at other lake-ports, it would naturally and easily take the shortest route. This route, too, would have an advantage over all others, derived from climate and latitude. The pork, bacon, lard, and flour, of the Mississippi valley, would escape the injurious heat of other routes, by taking that of the St. Lawrence.

Another important advantage to be derived from the opening of the St. Lawrence would be, that the vast amount of shipping that is kept idle during the long winters in the lakes, by the ice, could pass down to the ocean, on the approach of winter, and be profitably employed on the ocean.

It is to be hoped that the present session of Congress will take some action on this important subject; for it is one not only of vital importance in a commercial point of view, but also one nearly connected with the maintenance of our present friendly relations with Great Britain. It would be a digression, not contemplated when we commenced this paper, to view our subject in respect to our relation of amity with Great Britain, and we shall, therefore, make but thi more regular and complete; and a comptroller-general of posts was appointed. Previously to the time of Louis XI., dispatches were sent by special messengers, sometimes mounted and sometimes on foot; the nearest approach to a regular post system being that made by the university of Paris, which maintained, as early as the 13th century, pedestrian messengers, who, at stated times, took charge of letters and money for the young men who had come from every part of Europe to pursue their studies in the university. For more than one hundred years, the French post was farmed out by the government; first by the minister Louvois, under Louis XIV., (1676,) and, for the last and twenty-third time, under Louis XVI., (1786.) At the expiration of this last lease, (1791,) the establishment was taken under royal management; from which time it has been conducted with less expense and with more benefit to the people. When the post was farmed out for the third time, (1688,) the revenue which it yielded amounted to 1,400,000 francs; in 1733, to 3,000,000; and, in 1791, to 11,000,000 francs. From 1814 to 1822, the average annual yield of the letter posts was 21,890,000 francs. At the head of the entire post-office establishment is placed a general director; in each department is a post-inspector, and in each post-office a director, a comptroller, and an adequate number of assistants. Until the revolution of 1789, the postmasters possessed civil immunities of various kinds, in consideration of which, they transported the mail for a small compensation; but these privileges were taken away when the republic was proclaimed, and a salary granted instead, by the National Assembly. In 1823, the postmasters received, for carrying the mail and for dispatching public expresses, thirty sous (or cents) per stage for each horse, and twenty-five sous for each courier,—by one or more of whom every mail must be accompanied. Their contracts for transporting the mail are made with the director-general of the posts. Postmasters take an oath to preserve the inviolability of letters passing through their hands; but, until of late years, (since 1828,) the government has claimed, and sometimes exercised the right of examining their contents. In 1847, there were in France 3,582 post-offices; the circulation in the mails for that year amounting to one hundred and fifteen millions of letters, against sixty millions in the mails of the United States. The rates of letter postage have been, for some time, two sous for the first twenty-five English miles, and a corresponding advance for each prescribed distance. The late change in the regulations has fixed a uniform rate of four sous (about four cents) for any distance within the republic.

In Germany, the first post was established by Roger I., count of Thurn, Taxis, and Valsassina, in Tyrol, in the latter part of the 15th century. Subsequently other posts were established in the empire, the most important by counts of the same family; and, in 1543, Leonard of Taxis was appointed postmaster-general of the empire, in which office he was afterwards confirmed, and, finally, in 1615, his descendant, Lamoral, was invested with the imperial post as an imperial fief, with the right of transmission to his posterity. A regular post went at that time every week from the imperial court, and also from Rome, Venice, etc., to Augsburg, and thence to Brussels and back. This imperial post ceased to exist as such when the empire was dismembered, (1806.) Since that period, post establishments of different kinds have existed in the various states of Germany. At present, Austria, Prussia, Bavaria, Hanover, Saxony, Baden, Mecklenburg-Schwerin, Holstein-Oldenburg, Holstein-Lauenburg, and Luxemburg, have each their own independent posts; but the house of Thurn and Taxis still possess, as a fief, confirmed finally by the Congress of Vienna, the posts in Wurtemberg, Hesse-Nassau, the states of the Saxon-Ernestine line, the two Schwarzenbergs, Hohenzollorn, Waldeck, Lippe-Detmold, and in the territories of the princes of Reuss. In other states, the Thurn and Taxis post exists, not as a fief, but founded on a regular compact. The whole post establishment of this family is superintended by a postmaster-general at Frankfort-on-the-Maine; and it extends over an area of 25,000 miles, containing 3,753,450 inhabitants. It is, in fact, a private monopoly, managed for the benefit of its owner. Lichtenstein has no post.

In Germany, the stage-coaches (called *fahrende posten*) are usually united with the post-offices; by which parcels may be sent as safely as letters: an advantage by no means compensating, however, for the accompanying loss of speed in the transmission of letters and dispatches. Mail contracts are made at fixed prices: an allowance per mile for the ordinary service, and a share of the profit for extra work. The scale of postages in the different German states resembles in general that of Prussia, "which," says Mr. Bowen, "commences with a rate for the first two miles, equal to about 9½ miles English, of one silver groschen, equal to 2½ cents, increasing by a groschen for each interval of from five to ten miles German, with an intervening half rate. A reform in postage has been decreed by a recent postal congress at Dresden, fixing two rates in substitution of the foregoing: one of five kreutzers, (old German convention money,) about equal to five cents, for any distance not exceeding ninety-five miles (English); and the other, ten kreutzers, or cents, for any distance over."

The post establishments of other European continental countries are modeled after those of France or Germany. In the kingdom of the Netherlands, the system of France, introduced upon the incorporation of that country with the French empire, is still followed with little alteration. To the house of Thurn and Taxis is due the honor of having first introduced the post into the country. In Italy, since 1815, the post system in the Lombardo-Venetian kingdom, Tuscany, Parma, and Modena, conforms to the Austrian model, still preserving, however, the French basis which was given it on the union of those states with the empire of France. Throughout all Italy the post-office is well managed, as indeed it has been ever since its original establishment in that country by the German emperor, from whom, it would seem, the post-masters received, at first, their remuneration. In Switzerland, each canton regulates its own post; but, by common agreement, something like uniformity has been reached in its general management. In Spain and Portugal the post-office is presided over by a *correo mayor*, as director-general, but its operation is quite imperfect. In Turkey there is no post; but the Grand Seignior maintains mounted Tartars, whose business it is to forward as rapidly as possible his own and the dispatches of the public authorities. In Russia, whose post system is founded on that of north Germany, letters are forwarded with celerity and safety, at rates which are exceedingly moderate. A letter of an ounce weight is charged two kopeks (two-fifths of a cent) for every one hundred versts (66 miles) up to 1,500 versts; an additional kopek for any distance between 1,500 and 3,000 versts; and not over fifty kopeks (ten cents) for any distance over 3,000 versts. Extra posts are cheap and expeditious, a post-horse costing not more than two kopeks the verst; and a journey of 4,580 versts, which consumes eight weeks in making it, costing only about $220, the expenses of living included. The postal revenue of Russia is estimated at about $800,000 per annum.

In England, the post-office was not established till the year 1649. It was then founded by Mr. Edward Prideaux, Attorney-General for the Commonwealth, who arranged for the weekly conveyance of letters to and from all parts of the kingdom. Postmasters were, it is true, in the employ of the government before this period; and Charles I. had erected (1635) a letter office for England and Scotland, extending, however, to only a few of the principal roads, the postmasters on which transported letters at the rate of 2½d. per mile for each horse. This establishment did not succeed, but entailed an expense on the government, which just before Mr. Prideaux's plan was put into operation, amounted to £7,000 a year. Under the new order of things, the post-office yielded the Attorney-General such handsome profits, that it could not be leased for £10,000. In 1657 the post-office was established nearly on its present footing, and rates of postage were fixed which continued to the time of Queen Anne, when (Act 9, Anne) modifications were introduced, which have remained in force, in substance, up to the reign of the present sovereign, under whom (2 and 3 Vict. chap. 52) occurred the reduction of postage to the simple and cheap rates which now prevail. Previous to this reduction, the average rate of postage amounted to 7d. or 7½d. per letter, the charge on each varying with the distance. These prices yielded the government a nett reveuue, in 1838, of £1,676,522, or about $8,000,000. The new rates commenced in 1840, according to which all inland letters, without regard to distance, provided that they be paid on being posted or sent off, are, if they weigh no more than ½ an ounce, charged 1d.; 1 oz. 2d.; 2 oz. 4d., and so on, 2d. being added for every additional ounce up to 16 oz., beyond which weight no packets, with certain exceptions, whether subject to postage or not, can be received. Letters not pre-paid, are charged *double* these rates. The franking privilege is abolished; but addresses to the Queen are not chargeable with postage, nor petitions for either House addressed to parliamentary members, provided they are sent open at the sides, and do not weigh more than 32 ounces. Newspapers published in the kingdom are not charged for transportation, as the government has already received its pay in the shape of a stamp duty of one penny on each paper; foreign newspapers are charged at rates varying from 1d. to 4d. In France, newspapers are charged 4 centimes (four-fifths of a cent) postage on a small sheet, which must be pre-paid. In Germany, the rate is one-quarter that of letters, according to weight.—For the year ending Jan. 5, 1839, the gross revenue of the British post-office was £2,390,763; the expenditure, £756,999: leaving a net revenue of £1,633,764. In 1850, ten years after the reduction of the penny rate, the gross revenue was £2,165,349; the expenditure, £1,324,562, leaving a net revenue of £840,787. During 1847 the postage paid by the government amounted to £163,855.

All the business of the English post-office is done in the name of the Postmaster-General, who is also a member of the cabinet, and has a seat in the House of Peers. His salary is £2,500 a year. His chief assistant is a secretary, with a salary of £2,000. There are several other officers who rank above the ordinary postmasters; the most important of whom is the solicitor of the department, whose pay is to be £1,500 per annum. The highest salary received by a postmaster in England is £1,000, ($4,840,) which is given in Liverpool; the lowest is £30, ($145.20,) a year. The pay of the clerks ranges from £80 to £500 per annum.

Every provision is made in England for the safe and speedy transmission of the mails. The railway companies are bound to take them at such hours and such speed as the Postmaster-General may require. The prices paid to the railway companies for this service vary from 1d. to 2s. 9d. the mile; one penny the mile according to the mode of reckoning adopted, being equal to $14.72 a mile per annum, daily service; and 2s. 9d., being equal to $451.93 a mile, daily service. The latter enormous price is paid in cases where the mail forms almost the only article of transport, on account of the time at which the train is made to perform its journey. The expenses of the mails conveyed on coaches are included in two items; the first, the price of building and keeping coaches in repair, which, at the maximum, is $17.84 per mile, a year, daily service, at the minimum, $9.89 per mile; the second, the price for horsing and conveying the mails, which varies from 0d. to 6d. per single mile. Any driver, horse, or coach, can be dismissed from the service by the Postmaster-General.—The annual cost of mail transport in England averages thirteen cents a mile, daily service.

Special provision is made for the payment of small sums of money, not exceeding £5, through the agency of the post-office. The money being deposited at one office, an order for the amount, deducting the discount, will be given on any other office in the kingdom. The charge is 3d. for orders of £3 and less; 6d. for sums over that amount within the specified limits. In 1847, the transactions of this character amounted to £14,115,153; and at present 300 clerks are employed in attending to the business in the principal office in London; a branch of which exists in every important post-office in Great

Britain. On the continent of Europe, money is insured in transitu in the mails, at rates stipulated by each government.

The transport of letters from one part of the city to another forms in London, as in Paris, no inconsiderable business. In the former city, there are employed 1,367 letter-carriers, who receive pay varying from 15s. to 30s. a week. In 1847, more than thirty-three millions of letters, it is estimated, exclusive of those of the general post, were delivered in London, on each of which the same postage was paid as is charged on a letter traversing the kingdom from one end to the other. These city letters are delivered ten times a day; in Paris, seven times.

The dead-letter office of England is an object of no little interest. In 1850, about two million letters were returned as dead, no owners having been discovered: in these there was found, when opened, property to the amount of nearly $2,500,000, some of them having actually been posted without any direction. A single letter, on being opened in this way, not long since, was found to contain bank notes to the value of $7,500. The dead-letters, after examination, are sold, Mr. Bowen thinks, for waste paper; instead of being burned, as is done in the office at Washington.*

Certain features common to the post system of Great Britain and the continent, but not to this country, deserve here a brief enumeration. They are: (a.) The appointment of a fiscal officer, not subordinate to the head of the department, to keep a check on his accounts; (b.) the accompaniment of the mails by armed guards; (c.) the registration of letters for their safe transmission, on the payment of a fixed fee; (d.) the delivery of letters by the carriers, and a prompt return, if letters are not inquired for, to the dead-letter office, unless marked "*posta restante*," or to that effect; (e.) the limitation of letters by weight, in France and Germany, not exceeding ½ an ounce; (f.) the conveyance of money by mail, under special regulations; and other peculiarities not important to mention.

In America, the history of the post-office dates as far back as 1677, at which time an office was established in Boston, under John Howard, by the colonial court. In 1683, another was created in Philadelphia, by the order of William Penn. A scheme for establishing a post-office for the whole country, was carried, in 1700, into successful operation, by Col. John Hamilton, of New-Jersey; but this was superseded, in 1710, by the act of parliament "for establishing a general post-office for all her Majesty's dominions." Chief letter-offices were to be kept in New-York, and other convenient places in each colony. The name of Franklin is intimately associated with the early history of the American post-office. He was chosen postmaster in 1737, and, in 1753, was appointed one of the two deputy-postmasters-general of North America. At the latter date, the length of the post-roads in the thirteen colonies was 1,532 miles, North Carolina having the most, and New-Hampshire the least. In 1774, Franklin was dismissed from his office, only to be elected next year Postmaster-General by the Continental Congress. In 1790, after the post-office had fallen, by the express terms of the constitution, under the exclusive control of the general government, there existed in the Union only 75 post-offices, and only 1,875 miles length of post routes. To perform "a complete tour" between Philadelphia to Pittsburgh occupied twenty days; and the annual cost of the whole service was $22,702. There are now in the United States nearly 20,000 post-offices, 196,200 miles of post roads, and 53,272,252 miles of annual inland mail transportation. Great Britain had, in 1847, 4,785 post-offices; France, 3,582. The number of letters circulated in our mail during that year was 60 millions; while France had 115, and Great Britain the still higher number of 300 millions..

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* Some very curious articles are discovered inclosed within the letters opened at this dead-letter office. Mr. Bowen relates the following:—"Packages, not exceeding in weight sixteen ounces, are permitted to be sent by the British mail; and many curious packages in consequence pass through the London post-office. Game of various kinds, plum-pudding, bits of wedding-cake, lobsters, and, strangest of all, live mice and pet canary birds have thus been forwarded, and safely delivered. In one case, a lot of leeches were sent in bladders, several of which burst, and the water having wet the letters, many of the poor creatures were found crawling over the correspondence of the nation. In another instance, a jar of strawberries was dispatched through the mail, but being smashed in the bag, completely destroyed a packet full of valuable lace belonging to the late Queen Adelaide. A mercantile agent going his round through the country, soliciting orders, found he had forgot his pistol. He wrote to his wife for it, and she sent it by return of mail, labeled and loaded to the mouth with powder, ball and slugs. A roast duck, a box of spiders, and a live snake, were also among the things forwarded in this way. Most curious of all, however, was a bank-note for £50, without an envelope, the two ends being merely wafered together, and the address written on the back."

THE UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE.—At the head of the post-office department stands the Postmaster-General, who is at present N. R. Hall, of New-York. He has three principal assistants, each of whom preside over a particular divison, or bureau, of the general post-office. These divisions are the contract office, the appointment office, and the finance and dead-letter office; to which are to be added the inspection office, presided over by the chief clerk of the post-office department and the auditor's office, presided over by the auditor. Under each of these presiding officers are a number of clerks, amounting in all to about one hundred and fifty.

The general post-office building, one of the most beautiful edifices in Washington, occupies a whole square, reaches three stories in height, and contains about one hundred apartments. Completed under Amos Kendall, it was first occupied in 1836. The ground-floor of the building is occupied mainly by the auditor's clerks, the topographers, and the dead-letter office; the second floor by the officers and clerks of the post-office proper. The apartments of the Postmaster-General, who is also a cabinet minister, are situated in the main building, and are elegantly furnished. Here he receives visits of business and of ceremony. The rooms of his assistants, and those of the chief clerk and of the auditor, are contiguous to those of the Postmaster-General. The wings of the second story are occupied by the clerks of the contract, inspection, and appointment offices, among whom are found a few belonging to the auditor's office. The third story is appropriated to clerks of the last-mentioned office, to whom are added a few of the contract office; and contains, besides, the book-keeper's office, with its twenty-five, or more, clerks.

The Postmaster-General.—The Postmaster-General is appointed by the President, and has the general superintendence and management of the entire post-office department of the United States. Through him the establishment is controlled and regulated by Congress; and by him all postmasters are appointed whose income is not above $1,000 per annum. So varied and numerous are the duties of this officer, that only a small portion of them can be, and are in fact, performed by him in person: by far the greater part of them are, of course, attended to by his assistants and their clerks; among whom, especially since 1836, the strictest order and discipline prevail. All business is *prepared* by the clerks, and is then submitted by them to the Postmaster-General himself, or one of his assistants; who thereupon enters his *order*, after which the papers which have been prepared in accordance with such order, receive his signature. It is the duty of this officer to submit yearly to Congress an estimate of the amount of money which will be required for the department during the ensuing fiscal year, (commencing with July,) and also to present an account of the expenditures which have actually been made for the department from the time of the last annual estimate. His most important and most difficult duty is the regulation and supervision of the expenses of the department, and the general management of its monetary affairs. It is his business, too, to pay over, or to have paid, all the revenue of the department into the treasury of the United States, on the books of which it is entered to the *credit* of the post-office, as an offset to the *debit* created by the annual appropriation. Besides performing these duties, the Postmaster-General must decide upon the official forms of all the papers to be prepared by his more than 30,000 subordinates; must direct in what manner accounts are to be kept and rendered; and, in short, must exercise a general supervision over all the business, often complicated and involved, of the entire post-office department.

Bureaux of the General Post Office.—The bureaux or offices into which the general post-office is divided for the sake of facilitating its business, have already been mentioned. Of these, the first named, or *contract* office, has assigned to it, as its proper duty, the arrangement of the mail service, the making of mail contracts, the location of distributing offices, the supervision of the post roads, etc. The *appointment* office has exclusive direction of matters relating to the establishment and discontinuance of post-offices, changes of sites and names, appointments and removals of postmasters, and the giving of instructions to these last named functionaries. The miscellaneous affairs of the department, also, are properly under the management of this bureau. The *finance* office has the supervision and management of all the financial business which is not attended to by the auditor. Its head, the third assistant postmaster-general, has charge also of the dead-letter office, of the issuing of stamps for the pre-payment of postages, and of the accounts connected with their issue. The *inspection* office examines the registers rendered by postmasters of the time of the arrival and departure of the mails; inquires into all delinquencies of mail contractors, postmasters, etc., and all depredain 1836. The duties of the superintending officer are multifarious. He is "a comptroller, a commissioner of revenue, an auditor-general, a registrar, and a solicitor; nay, everything in relation to the fiscal affairs of the department, except what appertains to the Postmaster-General and his assistants, and the treasurer. In short, his office is an 'imperium in imperio,' and though comparatively simple in its organization, is multitudinous in its details." Besides the auditor, there is connected with the general post-office a *treasurer*, an officer created in 1836, who receives and has charge of all moneys collected by the Postmaster-General. The *dead-letter office*, a branch of the inspection office, though not under the control of its head, occupies four rooms, and has thirteen clerks in its service. Every letter which comes to this office is, after a stated interval, opened by its clerks; and those that contain money or valuable property are read, and every effort made to discover the owners. All the other dead-letters are cast into a heap, without any examination of their contents, and consumed by fire. Letters containing money are not found so frequently as in the dead-letter office of England. The whole amount received in this way in 1850 was $2,000. The chief cause of the accumulation of these dead-letters is misdirection. The number which is emptied annually into the vaults of the post-office at Washington is immense. It amounts, on an average, to 24,000 bushels, or about 20,000,000 of letters per annum. The postages on most of these are unpaid; it is estimated, however, that the proportion of unpaid will hereafter be much less, under the operation of the new postage law, which went into effect last July.

Postmasters, their Duties, etc.—Every postmaster must be an actual resident of the place in which the office he superintends is established; and he must be a citizen of the United States. He cannot enter upon his duties until he has taken oath and given satisfactory sureties for the proper performance of his official functions. His duties must be attended to by himself *personally*, or by the aid of a *sworn* assistant, or assistants if necessary. No other person but himself and his qualified assistants can have access to the letters and papers of the office, or interfere in any way with the mail. The mail may, indeed, be opened within view of other persons, but not within their reach. The postmaster is required to keep his office open daily during the usual business hours of the place; but on Sunday he need keep it open only an hour, but more if it be his pleasure; and, furthermore, he cannot resign his office and leave off the performance of his duties at his option, but must, even after resignation, superintend the office affairs until a properly qualified successor relieves him of his charge. Postmasters are required to make *quarterly returns* of the details of the business of their respective offices, and forward them to the department. These returns are examined by the auditor, and their errors, if containing any, are carefully corrected. A failure to send their returns within the specified time is followed by a fine. Besides making up and forwarding the quarterly returns in question, every postmaster must keep in his office a *general account* for the service of the department, subject to the inspection of the

Postmaster-General, or any agent of the department, a copy of which is to be furnished to the auditor whenever he may require one. This general account affords the means of comparison and adjustment, if a difference arises between the accounts of any postmaster and those of the auditor.

The payment of the services of postmasters is fixed by law on any amount of letter postage, (which in this case includes all prepaid postage upon transient papers, etc.,) received by them, not exceeding $100 in any one year, they are allowed 40 per cent.; on any sum between $100 and $400, 33⅓ per cent.; any between $400 and $2,400, 30 per cent.; any over $2,400, 12½ per cent. Besides this, they are entitled to 7 per cent. on the amount of letters and packets received for distribution, but this only holds good of offices specified by the Postmaster-General; two cents on every free letter not addressed to postmasters, (unless other commissions amount to $500 in the same quarter,) and 50 per cent. on all sums arising from postage on newspapers, magazines, etc. Charges for incidental expenses, moreover, are, in certain cases, allowed to be made against the department. For any deficiency arising in any post-office, after these commissions and allowances are made, the postmaster has no claim against the United States. If any balance is left, these deductions being made, it is to be acknowledged by him in his quarterly return. The payment of such balance, when called for, by draft or otherwise, must be made in specie bearing the stamp of the United States; any deficiency in the weight of which, as also any loss of post-office money or property by fire, robbery or theft, must be made up by the postmaster. A refusal to pay over balances to any officer of the department, is considered prima facie evidence of embezzlement on the part of a postmaster; which crime, if proved, as also any unlawful detaining of a letter or packet in his office, renders him subject to heavy legal penalties.—According to the recent report of the Postmaster-General, there were appointed during the fiscal year ending the 30th June, 1851, 5,339 postmasters, of whom 1,698 were appointed on the establishment of new post-offices. The entire number of post-offices now in operation is 19,796; nearly 1,700 having been established, and 256 having been discontinued, during the year. In the same report is expressed the conviction that the commissions allowed to postmasters will be found too moderate for the labor acquired by the new postage law. Of the post-offices now existing, 668 are in Maine; in New-Hampshire, 355; Vermont, 382; Massachusetts, 585; Rhode Island, 74; Connecticut, 339; New-York, 2,319; Delaware, 60; New-Jersey, 394; Pennsylvania, 1,790; Maryland, and District of Columbia, 337; Virginia, 1,296; North Carolina, 785; South Carolina, 484; Georgia, 658; Florida, 105; Alabama, 580; Mississippi, 553; Louisiana, 218; Arkansas, 328; Texas, 310; Tennessee, 760; Kentucky, 669; Ohio, 1,640; Michigan, 544; Indiana, 896; Illinois, 1,026; Missouri, 592; Wisconsin, 477; Iowa, 294; California, 34; Utah, 1; New-Mexico, 2; Nebraska, 2; Minnesota, 16; Oregon, 31. Of the postmasters tions committed upon the mail. The *auditor's* office was established superintending these, 36 receive a salary of $2,000; 174 from $1,000 to $2,000; 347 from $500 to $1,000; 208 from $400 to $500; 381 from $300 to $400; 697 from $200 to $300; 2,022 from $100 to $200; 3,279 from $50 to $100; 4,086 from $25 to $50; and 8,369 a salary under $25 per annum.

Transportation of the Mail.—The United States is divided into five contract sections, and the contract year commences on the first of July, and includes four civil or solar years. These contracts for transporting the mail are let, according to the act of 1845, "to the lowest bidder tendering sufficient guarantees for faithful performance, without other reference to the mode of such transportation than may be necessary to provide for the due celerity, certainty and security of such transportation." Some of the leading, and to the general observer, most interesting features of the mail contract, are the following: (*a.*) Only seven minutes at the most are allowed for opening and closing the mails; (*b.*) the mail is to be conveyed in preference to passengers, even, if necessary, to their exclusion; (*c.*) post-office blanks, mail-bags and special agents are to be conveyed without extra charge; (*d.*) mail agents are to be conveyed without charge on rail-road and steamboat lines, when the size of the mail or other reasons require it; (*e.*) forfeitures of pay, wholly or partial, according to a fixed scale, are to take place when trips are not performed, and fines are imposed for arrivals behind the time. For every failure to arrive within the contract time a specified excuse must be given, and a register of such failures and the alleged excuses must be kept by the postmaster at whose office they occur. A contractor is bound to supply all offices within eighty rods of his route, even though they be established after the date of his contract, without additional pay; and he is required in all cases to carry the entire mail, any leaving behind of the mail bags subjecting him to a fine, to be deducted, as are all the fines he may incur, from his contract pay. Contractors on special routes, if their route yield the sum specified, receive that sum, if not, they must bear the loss; if it yield more, they only receive the stipulated compensation. Other rules relative to the transport of the mail, not specially relating to contractors, worthy of particular mention, are the following: (*a.*) The mail cannot be borne upon a road which has not been declared a post-road, except in certain well understood cases; (*b.*) a member of Congress can have no interest in any mail contract; (*c.*) the mail can be carried only by free white persons, a fine of $20 being imposed on the contractor for every violation of the regulation; (*d.*) the master of every ship arriving from any port in the United States at another where there is a post-office, must deliver to the postmaster all letters in his charge, before he is allowed to break bulk or make entry; (*e.*) no letters or packets can be carried over any post-route outside of the mail, excepting private messengers, and by those who receive no compensation; (*f.*) no postmaster, or his assistant or clerk, can be a contractor, or be interested in a contract for carrying the mails; (*g.*) the Postmaster-General is empowered to make special arrangements with the owners of steamboats and rail-roads for transporting the mails, without reference to the ordinary mode of making the mail contracts; and, for extraordinary expenses when required, he may grant the most liberal terms; (*h.*) a mail carrier losing, destroying, or deserting his mail, is liable to heavy penalties; and any person robbing him is punishable, for the first offence, with five years' imprisonment, and for the second, with death, which latter penalty is also inflicted for the first offence if the carrier be wounded or killed; (*i.*) postmasters, drivers of mail-coaches, and mail carriers, are exempt from militia and jury duty.

The subjoined information respecting the extent and expense of the mail contracts for the year ending with the close of June, taken from the report of the Postmaster-General, as it appeared in the National Intelligencer of December 3d, 1851, will no doubt be very acceptable in the present connection. Six thousand one hundred and seventy mail routes were in operation in the United States, forming an aggregate length of 169,290 miles, and involving an annual cost for the transportation of mails of \$3,421,754. The total annual transportation amounts to 53,272,252 miles, of which 8,568,707 are performed upon rail-roads, at an average cost of about eleven cents five mills per mile; 5,454,982 miles in steamboats, at a cost of about eight cents three mills per mile; 19,726,588 miles in coaches, at about five cents three mills per mile; and 19,521,975 miles in modes not specified, at about four cents eight mills per mile. As compared with the previous year, this statement exhibits an increase of 13,354 miles in the length of inland mail routes, and of \$547,110 in the annual cost of transportation; but the comparison is irrespective of the routes in California and Oregon. In the former state, the annual transportation amounts to 537,476 miles, and the annual cost to \$130,270; in the latter, to 66,960 miles, at an annual cost of \$40,441. There are six foreign mail routes, three of which are under contract with the post-office department, at a cost of about \$2 09$\frac{9}{10}$ per mile; and three under contract with the Navy Department, at a cost of about \$2 42$\frac{6}{10}$ per mile.

Distribution.—In order to insure certainty, regularity, and dispatch, in sending packets from one remote point to another, offices have been established, which, besides the usual duties, perform the work of distribution. Much attention has been bestowed upon this subject, from time to time, by the different officials connected with the department. Systematic distribution was first attempted by the elder Granger; (1810;) each postmaster, previous to his time, being left to exercise his own judgment as to the best and most expeditious route for forwarding the matter of his mails. Modifications were subsequently made, at different times, in this scheme, which resulted finally in the arrangement now existing. It is unnecessary to give here the details of the plan of distribution. It is sufficient to say that, with all its modifications, it is yet quite imperfect, and frequently halts in its operation. Notwithstanding all the care taken to prevent mistakes, they are constantly occurring. Three hundred letters, for example, are received daily at the New-York office, which are improperly sent there for distribution; thus causing, as in many other places, a *double* distribution, each of which would cost the general post-office a commission of 7 per cent., if provision were not made to prevent it in New-York. The commissions on letters erroneously sent for distribution to the New-York office, would, if charged, amount in one year to $85,328; as it is, they are only saved by the employment of extra clerks, with much confusion and delay, and with much expense for clerk hire, to the department. Mr. Bowen computes the amount of money paid at present by the department for double distribution, at $300,000 per annum; which, he says, is less than one half what was formerly paid on the same account. A more simple scheme than that now in operation, and one that will save all these extra expenses, is that of single distribution, as proposed by this gentleman. It is not important that his plan should be exhibited here at full length; it is enough to say, that it is based on the present distribution scheme, that it is easily understood, and not difficult to be put into execution. It is hoped that the department will give the plan a fair consideration; for to such it is fully entitled, as having been matured by one whose experience in the practical working of the post-office system of this country gives weight to his opinions, and who deserves our thanks for the labor and expense which he has undergone in the preparation, and complete explanation, of the arrangement he proposes.

Rates of Internal Postage.—The new postage law went into operation on the 1st of July, 1851. According to this law, the postage on a letter not weighing over *half an ounce*, sent any distance in the United States, not exceeding 3,000 miles, is *three cents*, if paid in advance; and *five cents*, not-prepaid. For any distance over 3,000 miles, the rates are doubled. If sent wholly, or in part by sea, or to or from a country with which the United States has no postal treaty, the rates are *ten cents* for any distance under 2,500 miles, and *twenty cents* for any additional distance. A letter weighing over half an ounce, no matter how little, is charged double postage; and so every additional half ounce, or fraction thereof, is charged three cents, or five cents additional, according as the letter is or is not pre-paid. Drop letters, or letters put in the post-office for delivery in the same place, are charged *one cent* each, whether pre-paid or not. In all cases, the distance which a letter is conveyed is estimated by that of the post-road along which it is transmitted. Ship, steamboat, and way letters appear to be chargeable as before the passage of the law—*six cents* each, if delivered at the office of original reception, and *two cents* additional if forwarded to another office for delivery.

The postage on newspapers, pamphlets, etc., is determined by a complicated calculation. Its manner of adjustment is very unsatisfactory to the public, and in many cases the rate itself is decidedly higher (sometimes twice as high) than under the former regulations. It is not likely that these rates will continue long in force. They are best exhibited in the tabular form in which they were originally published on the 14th of June last, by the Postmaster-General.

Rates, per quarter, when sent from the office of publication to bona fide Subscribers.

From and after the 30th of June, 1851, for each newspaper not exceeding three ounces in weight, the annexed rates per quarter are to be paid quarterly in advance. These rates only apply where the paper is sent from the office of publication to actual and *bona fide* subscribers.	Weekly.	Tri-weekly.	Semi-weekly.	Weekly.	Semi-monthly.	Monthly.
	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.	Cents.
For any distance not exceeding 50 miles	25	15	10	5	2¼	1¼
Over 50 and not exceeding 300 "	50	30	20	10	5	2½
" 300 " 1,000 "	75	45	30	15	7½	3¾
" 1,000 " 2,000 "	100	60	40	20	10	5
" 2,000 " 4,000 "	125	75	50	25	12½	6¼
" 4,000	150	90	60	30	15	7½

DIRECTIONS.

1st. *Weekly Papers*, only when sent as above stated, are to be delivered free in the county where they are published, and this although conveyed in the mail over 50 miles.

2d. Newspapers containing not over 300 square inches, are to be charged one quarter the above rates.

3d. Publishers of newspapers are allowed exchange free of postage, one copy of each number only; and this privilege extends to newspapers published in Canada.

4th. The weight of newspapers must be taken or determined when they are in a dry state.

5th. Postmasters are not entitled to receive newspapers free of postage under their franking privilege.

6th. Payment in advance does not entitle the party paying to any deduction from the above rates.

Rates on Transient Newspapers and other Mailable Printed Matter.

NOTE.—For each additional ounce or fractional part of an ounce, beyond the ten ounces embraced in this table, an additional rate must be charged.	Weighing one oz. or under.	Over 1 and not over 2.	Over 2 and not over 3.	Over 3 and not over 4.	Over 4 and not over 5.	Over 5 and not over 6.	Over 6 and not over 7.	Over 7 and not over 8.	Over 8 and not over 9.	Over 9 and not over 10.
	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.	Rate.
	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents	Cents
When sent not over 500 miles	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Over 500 and not over 1,500 "	2	4	6	8	10	12	14	16	18	20
" 1,500 " " " 2,500 "	3	6	9	12	15	18	21	24	27	30
" 2,500 " " " 3,500 "	4	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40
" 3,500	5	10	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50

DIRECTIONS.

1st. On every transient newspaper, unsealed circular, handbill, engraving, pamphlet, periodical, magazine, book, and every other description of printed matter, the above rates must in all cases be pre-paid according to the weight.

2d. Whenever any printed matter on which the postage is required to be pre-paid, shall through the inattention of postmasters or otherwise be sent without pre-payment, the same shall be charged with double the above rates.

3d. Bound books and parcels of printed matter not weighing over 32 ounces, shall be deemed mailable matter.

Periodicals published at intervals not exceeding three months, and sent from the office of publication, to actual *bona fide* subscribers, are to be charged with one-half the rates mentioned in the last of the above tables, and pre-payment of a quarter postage thereon must in all cases be required. Periodicals published at intervals of more than three months are charged with the full rate, which must be pre-paid.

In case there is on or in any newspaper, periodical, pamphlet, or other printed matter, or paper connected therewith, any manuscript of any kind by which information shall be asked for, or communicated in writing, or by marks or signs, the said newspaper, periodical, pamphlet, or other printed matter, becomes subject to letter postage; and it is the duty of the postmaster to remove the wrappers and envelopes from all printed matter and pamphlets not charged with letter postage, for the purpose of ascertaining whether there is upon or connected with it any such printed matter, or in such package any matter or thing which would authorize or require the charge of a higher rate of postage thereon.

Rates of Foreign Postage.—The rates of postage between the United States and Great Britain are determined by the postal treaty of May, 1849. Previous to this treaty, the British Government enjoyed a monopoly of the sea-postage between this country and Europe. Even letters conveyed across the sea in our own vessels could not be delivered or posted in Great Britain without the prepayment to that country of the entire sea-postage. The postal treaty has totally changed this objectionable state of affairs; and the revenue derived from sea-letters, amounting annually to about $1,000,000, instead of going wholly to one, is now divided between the two governments. The rates of postage, as established by the treaty, are as follows:

The entire postage between any office in the United States, (California and Oregon excepted,) and any other in Great Britain or Ireland, is *twenty-four* cents, for a letter not weighing more than half an ounce; *forty-eight* for one exceeding that weight; *ninety-six*, if the weight exceed an ounce, but not two ounces; the rate being doubled after the first ounce. The postage may be left unpaid; if paid, all that is due must be given at once, as fractional payments will be disregarded. Letters from or to Oregon or California are charged *five cents* more than the above mentioned rates. Of this postage on foreign letters, the British Government, if it conveys the letter in its own packet, retains all but *five* cents. If a letter be carried over the ocean in an American steamer, that government retains, on collecting the postage, only *three cents* out of the whole; the rest being credited, and ultimately paid, to the United States.

Newspapers for Great Britain and Ireland are charged *two cents* postage, which must be pre-paid in America; but newspapers coming thence are paid for, at the same rate, when delivered. On pamphlets, books, and periodicals, the postage is *two cents* each, when weighing not more than two ounces; and *one cent* for every additional ounce, pre-paid, if sent from here, but not otherwise.

Letters sent to other foreign countries, in or out of Europe, which have to pass in their transit through Great Britain, must, if they are to be transported in an English steamer, have the United States postage, and that only, pre-paid; if sent by an American vessel, they must have both the inland and ocean postage pre-paid. Letters sent from the United States, by one of our steamers, to any point on the continent of Europe where they touch, must be pre-paid, at the rate of twenty cents the half ounce. Newspapers, under the same circumstances, will pay two cents. The postage to Havana, in Cuba, recently twelve and a half cents per half ounce, is now ten cents prepaid, if the letter be sent not over a distance of 2,000 miles; over 2,000 miles, the postage is ten cents the half ounce. The postage on letters sent to the British West Indies, which must be paid in advance, is the same as that charged upon letters forwarded to Cuba. The charge on newspapers is two cents. Letters sent to such of the West India Islands as are not British, are charged thirty-five cents the half ounce, for distances not over 2,500 miles, and forty-five cents for any distance over; to be pre-paid, as also letters coming thence.

Newspapers sent are charged four cents. The postage on letters sent to South America is, in general, fifty cents per half ounce, prepaid; on newspapers, &c., eight cents per ounce. Letters sent into Canada, from any office in the United States, not over 3,000 miles from the Canada line, by the route traveled, are charged ten cents for the first half ounce, increasing proportionally for every fraction of a half ounce; over 3,000 miles, fifteen cents; pre-payment being optional.

Mailing of Newspapers.—Every facility for mailing and transmitting their newspapers, is granted by law and by usage to editors and publishers. If their mail is large, they are furnished with bags and allowed to make it up themselves, and transmit it without further examination; and yet, in case of miscarriage of papers, postmasters are held responsible, unless they can show that the fault lies with the publisher or the mail contractors. Packets of newspapers addressed to one office cannot be opened at another; and if, by accident, a packet should lose its wrapper, the postmaster discovering it is bound either to re-direct it, or to return it to the publisher. And no postmaster is allowed to lend, or to suffer to be read, in his office, any newspaper directed to another person; but to guard against fraud, he is not only permitted but required to take the wrappers off from papers which come to his office in envelopes,—these wrappers not being counted part of the newspapers, and not being subject to postage.

Collection of Postage, and Delivery of Letters.—Nothing but specie can be taken for postages; and postmasters are not authorized, in any case, to give credit. Postage on newspapers regularly subscribed for are to be paid quarterly in advance. Letters may be delivered only to the person addressed, or to one authorized to receive them, by order; which order, however, is sometimes implied. Letters delivered to the wrong person, and opened by him through mistake, must receive his endorsement to that effect, and be returned therewith to the post-office.

Letter Carriers and Mail Agents.—Postmasters may employ *letter-carriers*, who are qualified for their office, by giving to the United States approved bonds. Their compensation, in large cities, is *one cent* per letter; in small cities, *two cents*, as formerly; on each paper they are entitled to ½ cent. It is the duty of the mail carrier to receive and convey all letters to the post-office which are handed to him more than a mile from the office. Beside these carriers, there are employed (by the Postmaster-General) on certain railroad and steamboat routes, *mail agents and mail messengers*, who are qualified by taking the required oaths, and who, like mail-carriers, are exempt from militia and jury duty.

Postage Stamps and Advertising Letters.—*Postage stamps*, of the denomination of *one*, *three*, and *twelve* cents, may be purchased to any amount, at important offices; and these answer all the purposes of money, and are, in some respects, more convenient for the pre-payment of postage. Such a stamp is canceled by the postmaster in whose office the letter bearing it may have been deposited. Letters remaining uncalled for in any office are to be *advertised*, every week;

or less frequently, according to a fixed rule, in the paper of the place in which the office is situated which has the largest circulation, at the rate of *one cent* per letter. If there be no paper in the town, or if the list be refused, the postmaster must post up, in a conspicuous place, a manuscript list of the letters in question.

The Franking Privilege.—Certain citizens and officers of government are entitled to freedom of postage on their letters and packets; among these are Mrs. Harrison, Mrs. Taylor, any person who has been president of the United States, the vice-president, members of Congress, and delegates from territories, the governors of states, the three assistant postmasters-general, and certain postmasters,—each, however, under given restrictions. Besides these, publishers of newspapers, periodicals, etc., not exceeding 16oz. in weight, may exchange with each other, postage free. The franking privilege is purely personal: it travels with its possessor, and can be exercised only in one place at the same time. Franks cannot be left behind on envelopes for letters to be written by another person; yet this rule is perpetually violated, without reflection, by members of Congress. Postmasters, whose yearly receipts do not exceed $200, can frank letters to publishers of newspapers, as their *agent*, for the agency being taken for granted by the appearance of the frank. The free matter sent to and from Washington, during the last two years, would have realized $1,795,920, at the present rates, and $4,240,820 at the rates in force a year ago; and this not counting newspapers, etc. This abuse of the privilege requires legislative action.

Lost Letters, etc.—Money, or any valuable property, transmitted by the mail, is at the risk of the owner. If a letter is lost, the department will make every effort to recover it, and to punish any one who has been the cause of the loss. To assist it in its efforts to do so, the loser should forward to Washington all the particulars which he can collect respecting the mailing of the letter, etc. Should not the letter or money be recovered, after all, there is no remedy; the courts have frequently decided against the department, and there is only in certain cases a remedy against the postmaster. The postmaster is liable for the loss, if it can be proved that it was sustained in consequence of his negligence.

Expenses and Receipts of the Department.—The entire expenditure of the last year, as given in the Postmaster-General's late report, (Dec., 1851,) amounted to $6,278,401; but this includes a payment made to Great Britain, and a payment made under an award. The ordinary expenditure was $6,024,566. The receipts during the same period amounted to $6,786,493; of which $5,369,242 were derived from letter (including foreign) postage and stamps sold, and $1,035,130 from postage on newspapers, periodicals, etc. Allowance must be made here for the same payable to Britain, and for that of additional appropriations. These allowances made, the ordinary revenues are $6,551,977, being an increase of $999,006 over those of the preceding year, and a balance of $527,411 over the proper expenditures of the present year. The estimated expenses for the current year are

$7,123,448. The reduced rates on printed matter, and the extension of the exchange privilege to publishers, will alone, it is thought, reduce the revenue for the current year $500,000. If all the free matter carried in the mail were charged with postage, it would, at the present rates, add to the revenue between $1,000,000 and $2,000,000 per ann.

In his late report, Mr. Hall recommends that the rates on letters remain as they now are, but that not more than two, or at most three rates of inland postage should be fixed on newspapers sent to subscribers, and that the postage on transient newspapers and other printed matter should be more nearly assimilated to the ordinary newspaper rates. "It is difficult," he says, and the remark is worthy of serious consideration, "to assign a sufficient reason for charging upon such periodicals as the reviews, the numerous magazines, and theological, medical and law periodicals, more than three times the amount of postage charged for the same distance upon an equal weight of newspapers. Such periodicals are less ephemeral than the ordinary newspapers, and certainly not less beneficial in their influence." It is hoped that Congress will take this matter in hand during the present session; and reduce to something like regularity and fairness our present anomalous system of newspaper and periodical postage.

APPENDIX I.—*Statement of the number of Post-Offices, the length of Mail Routes, and extent of Mail Transportation in the United States, and of the Amount of Receipts and Expenditures of the Post-Office Department, under appropriate heads, in each year, from* 1840 *to* 1851, *inclusive.*

REFERENCES TO APPENDIX I.

(*a*) Including $210,205 28 received for letter postages of the Government. (*b*) Do. $163,505 48 received for do. do. (*c*) Including $35,611 22 of British postages. (*d*) Including $147,063 82 of British postages. (*e*) Including $58,626 44 of British postages. (*f*) Including $22,089 81 received for newspaper and pamphlet postages of the Government. (*g*) Including $20,942 59 received for ditto. (*h*) Including $482,657 drawn from the Treasury under the act approved 9th September, 1841. (*i*) Including $150,000, drawn from the Treasury under the 21st section of the act of 3d March, 1845. (*j*) Including $600,000, drawn from the Treasury under section 21 of the act of March 3d, 1845. (*k*) Including $125,000, drawn from the Treasury under the 2d section of the act of the 19th June, 1846. (*l*) Including $233,235 40 paid for British postages.

J. MARRON, *Third Assistant Postmaster-General.*

Post-Office Department, November 28, 1851.

MILES OF TRANSPORTATION.					RECEIPTS.	
Years.	Number of Post-Offices.	Length of Post-Roads.	Rail-Road and Steamboat.	Other modes of conveyance.	Letter postage.	Newspapers & pamphlets.
1840.	13468	155739	3889053	32481723	.... 4003776 07	.... 535229 61
1841.	13778	155026	3946450	31050075	.... 3812738 61	.... 566245 46
1842.	13733	149732	4424262	30411729	.... 3953315 20	.... 572225 25
1843.	13814	142295	5692402	29560403	.... 3738307 54	.... 543277 39
1844.	14103	144687	5747355	29662269	.... 3676161 53	.... 549743 83
1845.	14183	143940	6484592	29149677	.... 3660231 38	.... 608765 22
1846.	14601	149679	7781828	29616670	....*a* 2881697 74	....*f* 652142 49
1847.	15146	153818	8084922	30802977	....*b* 3198957 43	....*g* 643160 59
1848.	16159	163208	8713200	32299379	.... 3340304 10	.... 767334 85
1849.	16747	167703	8945153	33598916	....*c* 3882762 62	.... 819016 20
1850.	18417	178672	...10634574	35906849	....*d* 4575663 86	.... 919485 94
1851.	19796	192026	...13855209	38849069	....*e* 5369242 76	....1035130 89

Appendix I. continued.

	RECEIPTS.		EXPENDITURES.			
Years.	All other receipts.	Total of receipts.	Paid for transportation.	Compensation to Postmasters.	All other expenses.	Total of expenditures.
1840.	.. 4516 24	..4543521 92	..3213042 61	..1029447 90	..475745 13	...4718235 64
1841.	.. 28742 20	..4407726 27	..3034813 91	..1021379 22	..443334 48	..4499527 61
1842.	..h 503966 20	..5029506 65	..4192196 06	..1041535 15	..441020 55	...5674751 76
1843.	.. 14640 50	..4296225 43	..2982512 47	.. 995009 57	..397231 67	...4374753 71
1844.	.. 11382 47	..4237287 83	..2912946 78	.. 988230 20	..395335 72	...4296512 70
1845.	..i 170845 20	..4439841 80	..2898630 48	..1033112 06	..388989 45	...4320731 99
1846.	..j 645249 74	..4089089 97	..2597454 66	..1042079 74	..444798 02	...4084332 42
1847.	..k 171329 12	..4013447 14	..2476455 68	..1060228 19	..434591 25	...3971275 12
1848.	.. 53438 90	..4161077 85	..2545232 12	..1254345 65	..527272 50	...4326850 27
1849.	.. 3397 46	..4705176 28	..2577407 71	..1320921 34	..580720 08	...4479049 13
1850.	.. 4835 06	..5499984 86	..2965786 36	..1549376 19	..697790 88	...5212953 43
1851.	.. 6230 68	..6410604 33	..3538063 54	..1781686 34	..958651 80	..l 6278401 68

Appendix II.—*The following table shows, very nearly, the number of Post-Offices in each State and Territory on the 30th day of June last, classified according to the compensation allowed to each Postmaster, for the last fiscal year:*

STATES.	$2,000.	$1000 to $2000.	$500 to $1,000.	$400 to $500.	$300 to $400.	$200 to $300.	$100 to $200.	$50 to $100.	$25 to $50.	Under $25.	TOTAL.
Maine	1	.. 6	..13	.. 5	..21	.. 9	..62	.146	.171	.234	..668
New-Hampshire	—	.. 5	.. 5	.. 1	..12	..16	..55	..95	..72	..94	..355
Vermont	—	.. 3	..10	.. 5	.. 7	..27	..77	.104	..87	..62	..382
Massachusetts	6	..14	..30	..23	..44	..60	.137	.137	..93	..41	..585
Rhode Island	—	.. 4	.. 3	.. 1	—	.. 2	..17	..15	..22	..10	...74
Connecticut	1	.. 6	..11	.. 8	..21	..39	..65	..69	..74	..45	..339
New-York	5	..31	..56	..34	..64	.118	.367	.527	.537	.560	.2319
Delaware	1	—	—	.. 1	.. 4	.. 3	.. 8	.. 9	..12	..22	...60
New-Jersey	1	.. 5	.. 7	.. 4	.. 6	..12	..35	..79	..95	.150	..394
Pennsylvania	3	..13	..30	..19	..24	..66	.163	.303	.418	.751	.1790
Maryland and Dis. of Columbia	3	.. 4	.. 2	.. 4	.. 4	..15	..37	..72	..93	.103	..337
Virginia	2	.. 8	.. 9	..12	..13	..28	..92	.171	.303	.658	.1296
North Carolina	—	.. 3	.. 5	.. 7	.. 6	..15	..28	..65	..96	.560	..785
South Carolina	1	.. 2	.. 9	.. 2	.. 5	..13	..18	..31	.118	.285	..484
Georgia	—	.. 8	.. 7	.. 6	..13	..17	..57	..88	.153	.308	..658
Florida	—	.. 1	.. 4	.. 2	.. 1	.. 5	.. 8	.. 9	..22	..53	..105
Alabama	1	.. 3	..10	.. 7	.. 8	.. 7	..49	.101	.123	.271	..580
Mississippi	—	.. 5	.. 6	.. 4	.. 9	..17	..46	..74	..90	.302	..553
Louisiana	1	—	.. 8	.. 2	.. 8	.. 6	..25	..35	..36	..97	..218
Arkansas	—	.. 1	.. 1	.. 4	.. 3	.. 6	..12	..37	..53	.211	..328
Texas	—	.. 1	.. 4	.. 2	.. 7	.. 5	..33	..33	..47	.178	..310
Tennessee	1	.. 2	..11	.. 4	.. 5	..16	..43	..82	.127	.469	..760
Kentucky	—	.. 6	..12	.. 6	.. 8	..16	..58	..85	.116	.362	..669
Ohio	2	..16	..31	..17	..23	..49	.218	.353	.366	.565	.1640
Michigan	—	.. 3	..14	.. 3	..11	..13	..48	..69	.112	.272	..544
Indiana	—	.. 8	..10	.. 6	..12	..28	..58	.135	.200	.439	..896
Illinois	1	.. 7	..15	.. 7	..21	..45	..84	.145	.203	.498	.1026
Missouri	1	.. 1	.. 9	.. 5	.. 6	..17	..54	..82	..97	.320	..592
Wisconsin	—	.. 4	.. 9	.. 2	..10	..18	..32	..87	..84	.231	..477
Iowa	—	.. 4	.. 3	.. 3	.. 3	.. 7	..24	..31	..59	.160	..294
California	5	.. 4	—	.. 1	.. 2	—	.. 7	.. 5	.. 4	.. 6	...34
Utah	—	—	—	.. 1	—	—	—	—	—	—	... 1
New-Mexico	—	—	—	—	—	—	.. 1	—	—	.. 1	... 2
Nebraska	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	.. 2	... 2
Minnesota	—	—	.. 1	—	—	.. 1	.. 2	.. 1	.. 1	..10	...16
Oregon	—	.. 1	.. 2	—	—	.. 1	.. 2	.. 4	.. 2	..19	...31
	36	179	347	208	381	697	2022	3279	4086	3369	10604

APPENDIX III.—*Statement of the number of Post-Offices and length of Post-Roads in the United States, the annual amount paid for Mail Transportation, and of Receipts and Expenditures of the Post-Office Department at periods of five years, from* 1790 *to* 1835, *inclusive.*

YEARS.	Number of Post Offices.	Length of Post Roads.	Paid for transportation.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1790..	75	1,875	22,081 00	37,935 00	32,140 00
1795..	453	13,207	75,359 00	160,620 00	117,893 00
1800..	903	20,817	128,644 00	280,804 00	213,994 00
1805..	1558	31,076	239,635 00	421,373 00	377,367 00
1810..	2300	36,406	327,966 00	551,684 00	495,969 00
1815..	3000	43,748	487,779 00	1,043,065 00	748,121 00
1820..	4500	72,492	782,425 90	1,111,927 00	1,160,926 00
1825..	5677	94,052	785,646 00	1,306,525 00	1,229,043 00
1830..	8450	115,176	1,272,156 00	1,919,300 00	1,959,109 00
1835..	10770	112,774	1,533,222 00	3,152,376 00	2,585,108 00

J. MARRON, *Third Assistant Postmaster-General.*

Post-Office Department, Nov. 28, 1851.

ART. III.—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

THE PARISH OF CATAHOULA—ITS EARLY SETTLEMENT, PRESENT CONDITION AND NATURAL RESOURCES—ANTIQUITIES—BOTANY, GEOLOGY, MINERALOGY, ETC., OF NORTHERN LOUISIANA.

WE publish this interesting paper, by Dr. Kilpatrick, long as it is, entire, and will conclude the subject in our next. It will be remembered that Dr. K. contributed to our pages in July last an invaluable paper upon *Concordia.* The information embodied has far more than a local interest, and was collected in answer to a circular from the Bureau of Statistics of this state, of which the Editor of the Review has had the charge. If this bureau had done nothing else than elicit the valuable contributions which have appeared in our volumes upon

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NOTE BY THE EDITOR.—In Dr. Kilpatrick's paper on Concordia, there occurred a few errors, which we now correct. De Bow's Review, vol. xi., page 42, for James Gillespie, read F. Gillespie; p. 43, Edward Sparrow is erroneously stated as a resident of Baton Rouge; it should be Concordia. Page 45, for *palamis occidental,* read *platunus,* etc. Page 52, Dr. Bradstreet, instead of Dr. Jackson, is said to have performed an operation; same page, note, for 18 feet, read 13 feet; p. 53, for Conger eel, read Proteus eel; p. 59, line 20, for $5 to $15, read $2 to $8; p. 62, note, 12th line, for $10 to $30, read $6 to $12. There was an error also in stating that the Bringier grant is still in dispute. The following other corrections have been pointed out.

"The earliest settlements made in the western border of the parish were in 1837–8, although previously, even during the early part of the century, there was a road leading through the country, communicating with Alexandria and Monroe, Washitta Post: the Indians and Spanish traders from Red River, Texas, and Upper Washitta, crossing the Black River at or near the mouth of Little River, where a ferry was kept by a man named Hebrard.

"The first settlements in the western part of the parish were as early as 1802 and 1803, on the Tensas River. Several claims for lands in the parish, under Spanish Requets, were presented to the Commissioners to adjudicate upon land titles for the Western District of the Orleans Territory in 1811 and 1812, and there were several residents on the parishes of Natchitoches, Avoyelles, Assumption, Baton Rouge, Concordia, Catahoula, Plaquemine, Jackson, Feliciana, Ouachitta, New-Orleans, etc., it would have repaid the state for the whole expense it has incurred. The office is, however, in correspondence still, and does not despair of success in obtaining information from all the other parishes. Is it expecting too much from our fellow-citizens, that they will impart their aid? Can the office, with the small consideration received from the state, proceed without it? We desire to be informed upon all points, and will ourselves judge of their materiality. The legislature may be assured that within twelve months from this a volume of historical and statistical detail will be issued, embracing a condensation of the papers already published—a great deal of material we have culled from every source, and all that we shall succeed up to that time in obtaining. Our desire is, that the volume shall not appear until it is complete, and, if possible, illustrated with a new and accurate map of Louisiana. Such volumes have already been published in several of the states. Should there unfortunately occur any errors in the details, we rely that our friends will at once point them out. We have some interesting cotemporaneous manuscripts regarding the Battle of New-Orleans; also many of the antiquities of the state, which, with any others that may be sent us, or old manuscripts, newspapers, etc., will be placed in the museum of the university.

The points to which our friends will address themselves in their contributions upon the parishes will be:

I.—Settlement and history of parish. Indian remains.
II.—Biography of remarkable men.
III.—Topography, geology, natural history, etc.
IV.—Agriculture, timber, roads, navigation, value of lands, levees and crevasses.
V.—Disease and health—meteorology.
VI.—Population—its growth, classes, size of towns, labor.
VII.—Education—schools, proportion educated, expense; churches, &c.
VIII.—Manufactures and arts of parish.
IX.—Commercial statistics of parish.
X.—General statistics—societies, pauperism, charities, crime, remarkable physical events, climate, &c.

The name of this parish is an Indian word of the Choctaw language, and should be spelled *Okkattahoula*, the meaning of which is *beautiful white water*. The name was originally applied to the lake of the same name, which was given to the district of country bordering upon it.

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the Tensas River at that time. The high waters of 1813 and 1815, which entirely submerged all those lands, drove away the occupants, except at one point near the mouth of the Little Tensas, which has been continuously occupied for at least forty years. At this point, the principal road which crossed the swamp from Natchez to Harrisonburg, Alexandria, etc., struck the Tensas River. It was by this road the mail was carried until within a few years, and by which Toledo and those under him went to Texas.

"The other road which is spoken of by the writer in this No. of the Review, was used before 1800. In 1802, a grant was made by the Spanish governor to one Thomas Thompson, of a ferry from the tract of land he owned near the port of Concordia, (now Vidalia,) to Natchez, upon condition that he would open this road 40 feet wide to the Bayou *Cocodra*. A similar grant was made to Don Juan Hebrara, for a ferry across Black River, at the point where Trinity now stands, and in consideration he opened the road from his ferry to the Cocodra. Before this, the way was what in backwoods parlance is called a bridlepath. Most of these facts are developed by the evidence of Gen. Walker, our present governor, Mr. Francis Henderson, of Rapides, and others, in a suit decided not long since by the Supreme Court of the United States, of J. Davis vs. Parish of Concordia."

During the time of occupancy by the Spanish and French, this section of country was an integral part of *the county of Rapide*, and was not divided from it till 1808, at which time the parish of Catahoula embraced parts of Caldwell and Franklin parishes, and extended from the present southern limits of the parish up to the parish of Ouachitta.

The parish now is bounded on the north by Franklin, Caldwell, and Jackson; east by Tensas River or parish; south by Avoyelles, Rapide, and Natchitoches; and west by Natchitoches. At the last session of the legislature an act was passed authorizing a further division and reduction of this parish, by cutting off a slip on the west to help in making a new parish. Catahoula now is so very large that the sheriff and other officers are necessitated to ride about 70 miles west from Harrisonburg in the discharge of their duties, while those citizens in the west are also subjected to great inconvenience in attending the District Court.

While the country was under the rule of the Spanish and French governments, a few hardy pioneers made their way here through many and great hardships and deprivations. The emigrants from Spain and France were not much inclined to husbandry and the arts of civilization, but engaged in hunting with the Indians, or trafficking in peltries. Many of them had traversed the country from the forts at different points, and become in some measure acquainted with the general face of the country and the principal geographical features. Amongst these were a few English and Americans from the southern Atlantic states and the western states, amongst whom I would take the liberty of naming a few.

Edward Weeks	1796	Nicholas Welch	1798
David Jones	1797	James Levins	1799
Nicholas Levins	1799	Matthew Stone	1802
William Brown	1798	Edward Lovelace	1802
Henry Holstein	1803	Richard Green	1802
John Holley	1804	Rezin Bowie	1802
Rhesa Bowie	1802	Elijah Ford	1802
—— Patton	1802	James White	1802
Don Juan Hebrard	1803	John Lovelace, Sen.	1810
John Faulk	1806	John Galvin	1807
Andrew Cathey	1805	Joseph Barbee	1807
William Whatley	1797	Jacob Young	1810
Richard Earle	1797	Zacharias Taliaferro	1815

The list of names could be greatly extended, but it is not deemed important to do so, as many have died, leaving no families, or else moved away farther west, after a short sojourn here.

The most of those here named were hardy hunters, but also fond of agriculture and the pastoral life; and many of them secured large bodies of valuable land from the Spanish government, or from the United States, by pre-emption. On looking over the United States land papers, it has been found that, in the county of Rapide, there were 450 applications for grants and requets, which came before the United States Commissioners, at Opelousas, and the most of which were confirmed by them. But the most of these, settlers and claimers, were afraid of the swamp, and located their grants in the pine woods. They seemed not to be willing to trust the waters, which, probably, was well enough for them, as they were poor, and there were no levees then to protect them in the least from the Mississippi River. There had been an overflow in 1779, which was about 4 feet higher than the one of 1828; and another in 1796, which was only about six inches lower than 1828, so that really they had good reason to avoid the alluvial lands. The early settlers clustered around Catahoula

Lake and prairie, and along on the principal creeks, in the pine hills, where the soil laid well, and was productive.

The family of Lovelaces settled on the Sicily Island, in 1802, coming from Red River, a short distance below Alexandria, where they had been living several years, having come from South Carolina to Natchez, in 1776, lived there about eighteen years, and settled at what was afterwards known as Fort Adams, below Natchez, where they remained some four or five years, after which they removed, as above stated, to Red River.

Other settlements were made at Harrisonburg, and on Hemphill's Creek. Although this stream is thus named, Mr. Hemphill never lived on it, but was amongst the first to obtain a grant of land there.

In the year 1797, Mr. David Jones settled on Little River, above the Catahoula Lake, at the place now owned by Mr. Lacroix. Mr. Jones was an enterprising man, who had traversed the country, and, with a judgment and forecast truly remarkable, selected that spot for the purpose of raising stock, and keeping a ferry and public house.

At that time there was no road through the country, and persons going that way were guided by Indians, or hunstmen, equally wild and roaming. Jones went to work, and blazed out the route across from Alexandria to his ferry, thence down to Catahoula Prairie, thence through the Elm Bayou swamp, along the northern bank of Little River to the Ferry of Don Juan (or Caddy) Hebrard De Baillion.

This road is still used in great part to the present day. About the same time, the road was blazed out to the present town of Harrisonburg. The old Natchez trace from Caddy Hebrard's down through Holloway's Prairie, and on to Alexandria, was blazed out about the same time. In the same way the trace was marked out from Harrisonburg, about 1802–3, along the swamp, following its meanderings to Lovelace's Lake, or Lake Looah, crossing it, and thence to Tensas, at Robert Noble's Ferry, and on to Vidalia. The road across the Island of Sicily to Rodney was traced out about 1810. These dates are not given as being *perfectly* accurate, as there are no records to refer to; and, in the early settlement of all our western country, the pioneers were in the habit of being guided by the Indians in their migrations from place to place.

The early settlers were accustomed to go across to Natchez and Alexandria, taking pack-horses, and bringing home their yearly supplies. They would unite in small parties, and those who had slaves would take one or two along to attend to the pack-horses.

In those days, when a stranger wanted to go through the country from Natchez or Vidalia, to Alexandria, it was necessary to get a *passport* from Commandante Joseph Vidal, who also sent a guard along with him to Alcalde Don Juan Hebrard's, on Black River, who inspected the passport, and furnished another guard to go on with the stranger to Alcalde, Nicholas Levins', in Catahoula Prairie, who also *vised* the passport, and furnished another guard on to Alexandria, where Liszard, the commandante, also inspected the passport, and either signed it or furnished another one, if the traveller wished to go further, or return thence again to Natchez.

Their expenses then were very small, and their wants but few. A few pecks of salt, a few pounds of coffee and sugar, and some few cooking utensils, were the most indispensable. In dress, the good wives and daughters fabricated out of cotton and wool, with the wheel and loom, all that was needed in the family. Calico and checks, and the Northern domestics, were quite rare, and only worn on extraordinary occasions; and one fine dress lasted many, many years.

The men spent much of their time in the woods hunting, and wild game supplied the daily food the year round. The meat of bears, deer, turkeys, and all other game, was then to be had in the greatest abundance; the fishes in the streams were superabundant, and of the most delicious quality. Bears' oil supplied the place of lard and butter, and, besides, was used to lubricate, anoint, and fix up any and everything; while the skins were appropriated to many domestic uses. The men adapted their dress to their pursuits and manner of life, wearing what is called the hunting shirt, leggings and moccasins, with a coarse hat, or rather a cap, made of the skin of some animal. Many of them engaged in rafting timber and boards to Natchez, or along the Mississippi River, or on to New-Orleans. If a trip was undertaken to the city, several of them would club together what stock of peltries and other saleable articles they possessed, purchase, or rather build a flat boat, and so float down to New Orleans, dispose of their "plunder," purchase their supplies, and work their way back, or else sell boat and all for cash, and walk back home. Here is a genuine "*bill of expenses*" of a trip of this sort, in 1809:—

EXPENSES TO NEW-ORLEANS AND BACK.

1809			
July 20,	To 1 gallon whiskey......	2	
28,	1 gallon do.	1	
30,	1 melon	0	12½
Aug. 2,	melons	0	50
4	bread, coffee, and sugar	0	56¼
"	a hand from Red River	5	
"	bread.................	0	6¼
5	unloading the flat.....	2	
"	wharfage............	6	
6	bread	0	6¼
"	cash paid Stephen....	4	
"	1 lb. coffee...........	0	50
7	2 lbs. sugar...........	0	25
"	cash paid Stephen....	2	
8	cash paid Stephen....	1	50
9	tobacco	0	31¼
"	cash paid Rogers......	0	50
10	cash paid Stephen	10	
11	cash paid Rogers.....	0	25
"	cartage...............	0	50
"	penknife	2	50
"	pair shoes	2	
"	washing clothes	0	25
"	coffee and bread......	0	62½
12	washing clothes	0	18¾
13	cartage	0	12½
"	rum	0	12½
15	sugar and coffee......	0	50
"	dried beef...........	0	37½
"	biscuit...............	0	43¾
"	brandy...............	0	6¼
"	cash paid for Stephen	0	25
		$44	56¼

1809			
	[Carried forward]......	44	56¼
Aug. 17	cash paid for crossing lake*..............	4	
"	dinner and melon....	0	62½
18	supper	0	37½
25	cash paid John Crow	3	
"	ferriage to Natchez..	0	25
		8	25
		$52	81¼
26	crossing the Mississippi	0	37½
27	crossing the Tensas...	0	25
		0	62½
		$53	43¾
	the price of the flat...	90	
		$143	43¾

The proportion of each in the price of the flat, and the expenses to Orleans and back again, is thus:—

John Lovelace, senr...	35	86
Edward Lovelace....	35	86
Samuel Lightner......	35	86
William H. Lovelace	35	86
	$143	44

There were settlements made on Black River as early as 1802, by John Henry, —— Patton, James White, —— Prater, —— Wyche, John Faulk, and a few others. A few of the settlers had slaves, but generally not more than half a dozen. Mr. Rezin Bowie, who settled on the Bushby, had about 20, which was more than any other one man. The Lovelaces settled on S. I., with seven adult negroes. Soon after these, others came in, who brought still more slaves with them. Among these, were Moses King, and Z. Kirkland.

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* Lake Pontchartrain.

The first store in the parish was owned by Oliver J. Morgan and John Henry, in 1807, and was situated in Catahoula Prairie. They brought up their merchandise in keel boats. As a matter of curiosity, and to let us see how the prices of many articles have been reduced in our day, the following "accounts," from the books of this store, are here copied, together with others from the books of Lovelace, in 1808–9:

CATAHOULA, *March 26th*, 1807.

JAMES WHITE, Dr. to Sundries.

52½ lbs. coffee, *a* 5s	32	06¼
102 lbs. sugar, *a* 20c	20	37½
1 demijohn, gin	10	00
4 lbs. powder	4	00
7 yards linen, *a* $2	14	00
21 lbs. shot, *a* 3s	7	87½
13 lbs. lead, *a* 2s	3	25
1½ yards linen	1	50
6 lbs. chocolate, *a* 5s	3	75
3 bags cotton seed, *a* $1	3	00
4 yards bagging, *a* 4s	2	00
6 yards Osnaburgh linen, *a* 3s	2	25
3½ yards blue guinea, *a* 5s	2	11
3 pocket-handkerchiefs, *a* 4s	1	50
6 caps, *a* 2s	1	50
3 do. *a* 1s	0	37½
1 coffee pot, *a* 10s	1	25
1 bushel salt	2	50
1 ounce of thread	0	37½
2 blankets, *a* $5	10	00
15½ black velvet, Andrew Cathy's account	38	75
7 yds. velvet cord	10	50
1½ yd. waistcoating	1	25
1½ yd. cotton	1	12½
1 yd. cambric	1	50
1 pr. shoes	3	00
2 fish hooks, *a* 1s	0	25
2 doz. needles	0	25
1 paper pins	0	25
1 caret of tobacco, [4 lbs.]	1	00
2 tumblers	0	75
2 bottles wine	2	50
3 yds. calico	3	00
2 lbs. shingling nails	1	00
1 lb. flooring do	0	37½
10 yds. checks	10	00
1 pr. 3½ pt. blankets	12	00
5 lbs. sugar, $1 25; 5 lbs. coffee, $3 12½	4	37½
1¾ yds. yellow flannel	2	18¾
5 yds. calico	6	25
1 log chain	15	37½
3 tumblers	1	12½
1 lb. pepper, $1; ½ lb. tea, $2	3	00
On the books of G. W. Lovelace, he charges himself with 4 brls. of salt, $12; freights on same, $2 50—$10	22	00
1817 { Freight from New-Orleans, on 1 brl. sugar, 2 bags coffee, 1 10 gal. keg, and 4 bls. salt,—total	17	50
4 pr. negro shoes, [Natchez,]	8	50

Having thus briefly noticed the early settlements, the next subject will be the

NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE PARISH.—The entire area of the parish, according to the calculation of F. G. Smith, the United States Marshal for this district, is 1664 square miles, while according to others it is nearly 2,000. It is naturally divided into alluvial bottom land and pine hill land, the latter embracing two-thirds of the territory, while the remaining third is alluvial; of this latter, one-fifth is fit for cultivation, and is highly productive, while the remainder is not tillable, and probably will not be for many years to come, if ever. The forest growths, flowers, and so forth of the two divisions are quite different in many respects, as will be more definitely stated in another place.

The base of the range of hills runs southwest from the town of Harrisonburg on the Ouachitta River, and continues in this line, bordering the northwest side of Catahoula Lake to Red River below Alexandria. The overflow of the swamp next to the hills is on an average of ten feet deep. The land in cultivation in the swamp is only along the banks of rivers, bayous, and lakes, as is well known throughout the state.

About three miles above the town of Harrisonburg the hills seem to have crossed the river in a spur or point, and about 10,000 acres are cutoff on the east side of the Ouachitta River. At the foot of these hills, on the south and east sides, a plateau or table land, some four or five feet above the late high water marks, extend several miles to the bayou Looah and lake of the same name; while on the north side, the Deer Creek, emptying into the Ouachitta at the base of the hills, cuts off all connection with other high lands, thus forming what is called *Sicily Island*. On the table lands the magnolia, poplar, lynn, holly, and wild peach grow. The gap where the Ouachitta cuts through is probably a mile wide, and the river being 230 yards wide, the rest of the space is alluvial, intersected with bayous and lakes next to the hills on the west. In low water, the river here does not permit the passage of steamboats, and its bottom is broken white sandstone. On a high point of alluvion in the gap is a large square mound about 40 feet high. The table lands of this island are of a dark loam, and very fertile indeed. Fields which were in cultivation in 1803, and which have not been renovated by any process of manuring, produce still good crops of corn and cotton, and seem to be well adapted to the cultivation of sugar cane. On digging wells here the following is the soil and substrata: dark soil 12 to 18 inches; yellow clay 6 feet; red clay 8 to 10 feet; dark clay, sometimes called pipe clay, 8 to 10 feet; coarse dark sand 3 to 4 feet; fair colored or white sand, with white or yellow gravel or pebbles intermixed, 2 to 3 feet, out of which gushes delicious, pure water.

INDIAN REMAINS.—To speak truly in this matter, agreeably to the sentiments of the writer, there are *no remains* of the races of Indians known to us. Although Dr. Monette and A. J. Pickett, in their admirable works, contend that many of the mounds now seen amongst us were built in modern times, still it seems that they assume more than can be proved. On nearly all of the mounds about here, there were very large trees growing when first discovered, and those which are yet in the woods all have large trees on them. As regards the Natchez Indians throwing up the large mounds at the confluence of Little and Black rivers, it may well be objected to. That they stopped there, occupied the position and fortified it, is also matter of doubt. There are many persons here in the parish who contend that the Natchez Indians occupied a position on Sicily Island. There seems to be conflicting testimony in regard to this amongst historians. Mr. Gayarre says, the French officer had no artillery, but made an artificial cannon out of a log, and mounted it on wheels, so as to deter the Indians. Mr. Pickett, in his History of Alabama, says, that *artillery was used* on the occasion, and very effectually too. It is well known that there never have been any remains or relics of any military engagement discovered here at these mounds at Trinity by any of the old settlers, whilst hundreds of relics of many different kinds have been found on Sicily Island, on lands formerly owned by Moses King, but now belonging to Dr. H. J. Peck and Dr. Nuttall. When the Lovelaces settled there in 1802, there was a regular entrenchment and breastwork found on the place above named, on the border of King's Lake, at the foot of the bluffs. The breastwork was about four feet high at that time, but from various causes it has been entirely obliterated. The writer was on the spot in November, 1851, and picked up the main-spring of a gun lock, some musket flints, about a dozen ounce musket balls, all more or less flattened and battered; a short piece of iron rod, a copper arrow point, having a socket so as to fit on the end of a large arrow, together with several of the common flint arrow points. In addition to this, there have been some musket barrels plowed up out of the ground there, also several pistol barrels; and Mrs. P. found the barrel of a pistol sticking in the bank on the border of this lake, one day while fishing. I picked up also a part of a bomb-shell, while Dr. Peck, several years ago, found some cannon balls, about eight pounders, one of which his brother, in Port Gibson, has hanging on his yard gate. Pigs of lead two feet long have been found there in digging a ditch, and several stout pieces of bar iron, which Edward Lovelace made use of in the building of his first gin. The musket balls and bits of lead were so numerous and plentiful there in early times, that the settlers resorted there to procure lead instead of buying it, as it then cost two bits a pound. The balls are all coated with a thick oxide or crust, and when melted, this is left hollow like the shell of an egg. A spherical bell was found, having a loop for a handle, and a rattle inside, the wall being split at several places, similar to a child's rattle; it was a good bell, and rung very clear. Some gentleman passing there, who had a taste for such curiosities, took it with him. A part of a steel corn mill was also found, and part of a chain with the hook on it. The Indians there in 1802–3, said there were two cannons sunk in the same lake; the then present generation of Indians said they were told by their fathers that the whites and Indians had a battle there more than a hundred years before.

But one of the most interesting circumstances or proofs concerning this battle is this: Mr. Andrew Carthay, who settled there cotemporaneously with the Lovelaces, cut down a cypress tree immediately by the battle ground, to make him a "*dug-out,*" and while engaged in this work he found a musket ball, such as those found there on the ground, embedded deeply in the cypress tree. Now, if it could be ascertained what was the size and approximate age of that tree, and at what depth in it that ball was found, the question might be settled as to when and by whom that battle was fought. Mr. Cathay is dead, but I have reason to believe that his widow is still living in Franklin Parish, who may probably be able to throw some light on this matter.

While dwelling on this subject, I would here beg leave to introduce the following letter of a very well informed gentleman, who has devoted much time to the examination of this subject. He thinks these relics mark the spot of one of De Soto's encampments, and probably his last one. But we will let Mr. Guice speak for himself.

DE SOTO IN LOUISIANA.

"TEXAS PARISH, LA., *October* 16, 1851.

"DR. A. R. KILPATRICK:

"MY DEAR SIR,—As respects the book of De Soto's Travels, to which you refer in your letter, it cannot be expected that my recollections should be very accurate after the lapse of twenty-seven years; but, such as they are, I am willing to give them to you in as concise and accurate a manner as it is in my power. The title of the book and the name of the author have entirely escaped my memory, but I am inclined to think that the author was a priest, belonging to the expedition, who acted as father confessor to that renowned adventurer. If that work was before Dr. Monette, when he wrote his history of the discovery and settlement of the West and South-west. his understanding of its contents were very different from my own respecting the route that De Soto traveled through the western country, from the bay of Espiritu Santo in Florida. After landing, and having the great battle with the natives, in which he suffered so much, according to my recollection, he marched a north-west course; and, consequently, must have entered the state of Mississippi in the present county of Green. Still following on that course, he passed through Lawrence and Copiah, Hinds, and Yazoo, to the Yazoo River, where he encamped for the winter. The book says that the natives in this part of the country were very warlike, and hostile to the Spaniards, and that here they built a large fortification to protect them from the natives, (which the author calls the Yazos.) He gives a particular description of the river, which description answers well to that of the Yazoo. This, together with the tribe of Indians on its banks, of a name so nearly resembling the name of that river, fixed it in my mind that the river could be no other than the Yazoo. Another circumstance related in the book, proves this fact beyond controversy. The author says they desired to continue their course to the north-west, but in the spring before they commenced their march, the banks of the river were inundated, and entirely stopped their progress in that direction, and compelled them to shape their course to the north-east. At this place I would remark that there is an old fortification on the Yazoo, built in a square form, and inclosing near forty acres of land—an embankment thrown up several feet in height, and the appearance of a ditch on the outside. The fortification has two gates on opposite sides. It may be said that De Soto and his adventurers would not have inclosed so large a space for the accommodation of his army; but when we consider that his force at this time consisted of near 1,400 men, and as wood was very essential for their comfort during the winter, that they may have inclosed so much that they could have that necessary article within their wall, so as not to expose themselves to the ever-watchful savages in procuring it. This fortification is so unlike all the ancient remains of the aborigines of this country, that we are forced intuitively to ascribe it to a people of a higher grade of civilization than ever, before the time of De Soto, inhabited these regions. Whether there have been any relics of civilization discovered at this fortification, I have not been informed. The writer of the book relates, that on their departure from their winter quarters, that they soon encountered steep and precipitous hills, covered with thick forest and undergrowth, which very much retarded their progress; and as their horses that remained were quite weak, they were compelled to leave two pieces of artillery that they had brought thus far. He says they buried them in a deep ravine between two precipitous hills. After severe toil, they attained a more level and beautiful country, of which the writer gives a very glowing description. During this summer's march, they had several severe conflicts with the natives, which distressed them very much, and somewhat impeded their march. They at length arrived at a very beautiful river, of which the author gives a very beautiful and glowing description. The description of this river, and the course they had marched, would fix it to be no other than the Tennessee. After passing this river they turned their course westward, and late in the fall arrived on the banks of another beautiful river, where they built a fort, and remained for the winter. Here I would remark, that this river must have been the Tennessee, from the course they traveled, and the description of the river. Here they found the natives more friendly. The next season they continued their course south-west, nearly with the course of this river, and soon discovered the great Mississippi, at or near the Chickasaw Bluffs. After descending this stream a small distance, they crossed it, and again bent their course to the north-west, and must have wintered somewhere in the lower part of Missouri, or the upper part of Arkansas. During this summer's march, they had much trouble with Indians and much sickness, which thinned their numbers very much. During this winter their sufferings were very great, as they were often short of provisions. Their sufferings and privations continued to thin their numbers; at length, in the spring, they commenced their march in a south-east direction, crossed White and Arkansas rivers, and continuing the same course, arrived on Sicily Island in the parish of Oucattahola, and there encamped for the winter. Their numbers, by sickness and war, were now reduced to about 400 men. De Soto himself was in a very precarious state of health on their arrival at this encampment, and expired a short time after, and the command devolved on Moscoso. I will here give my reasons for placing this encampment on Sicily Island. The writer observes, that they designed continuing their march by land in the spring; but, before they were ready to depart, they found that they were surrounded by water on every side, which determined them to build brigantines, to effect their passage from their encampment. This circumstance is a very strong argument in itself, that this island was their location, but I have very strong circumstantial evidence to strengthen this position. An old friend of mine, formerly of Franklin county, Mississippi, now deceased, named Moses King, was one of the first settlers of Sicily Island; he informed me that, on the plantation which he settled in that island, he found numbers of musket balls, old hatchets in an advanced state of decay, and old musket barrels in the same situation. Mr. King was a man on whose statements the utmost reliance could be placed, and it is therefore evident that there had at some remote time been an encampment of civilized men at this place; and that it could not have been any other than De

Soto, is very conclusive, from the circumstance of the place of encampment being entirely surrounded with water, as narrated in the journal of the writer above named. Respecting the burial of De Soto, I am inclined to believe it took place by his direction, in the Father of Waters, and the place I believe to be the mouth of Red River, as that was the first place the brigantines built on Sicily Island reached. There, I believe, his remains were deposited, which circumstance has led to the mistake that he died at that place, and that the brigantines were there built that conveyed the remnant of these adventurers to a Spanish settlement.

As I have never resided in the parish of Catahoula, I cannot be cognizant of much that can be interesting to the work you are now engaged in. At the time the American government took place in Louisiana, there were few or no American inhabitants in that parish; the settlers at that time were exclusively French. They were scattered in several settlements, the largest of which was on Catahoula prairie and lakes. Those inhabitants that then resided there, I think, have very much diminished in numbers. As late as 1802, there was but one road through the swamp from Concordia to Catahoula; about that time a road was laid off running from the Mississippi at Rodney, to Sicily Island. About the year 1800, the road to Alexandria was laid off, leaving the Mississippi near W. P. Smiths' plantation, and crossing Black River about three miles below the present town of Trinity, and passing through the parish by the way of Holloways. I know not much of the present resources, health and general statistics of Catahoula; there are others you can ascertain this from, better qualified than myself to give you the requisite information. If this statement will be any advantage to your notes, it is at your service.

Your friend,

JESSE GUICE."

The gentleman mentioned, Moses King, lived on Sicily Island only a few years, when he returned to Franklin county, Miss., where probably his descendants are yet residing, who may be able to give some further information. The book which Mr. G. quotes, he says, belonged in 1824 to Dr. Penquite, who removed to Madison county, Miss., where he died many years ago, leaving a widow and some children, who may yet have the book in possession. It was a very old book then, printed about the time of the Revolution, or before.

That there was a battle fought here there is no doubt, but at what time it is difficult to ascertain positively. The tradition of the cannons being sunk in the lake would militate against the belief of its being an encampment of De Soto's, because he had only one piece, which it is generally believed he left in the present limits of Florida; or if he carried them further, the author quoted by Mr. Guice says, he left them probably in the present limits of Tennessee. Indian traditions are generally good authority on matters of locality, as has lately been evinced by the recent discovery of some artillery sunk in the Tombigbee River by the French in one of their unfortunate campaigns early in 1700. The Indians had frequently pointed out the place where the cannons were sunk, but most of people disbelieved them.

But to continue on the subject of mounds and Indian remains. There are very many interesting specimens of this kind of work in the parish. Several large ones on Sicily Island, the most noted of which are on Lake Looah, on lands of John Lovelace, which inclose an irregular square. Many specimens of pottery, and human bones of a large size, have been frequently dug up here, and are yet to be found with little labor. All who have seen these skeletons, say they are larger than bones of the Saxon race; the big bones are from two to four inches longer than those of our tallest citizens, while the inferior maxillary, or lower jaw, can easily embrace a large man's face like a visor.

There are two mounds on Bayou Looah, near the ferry. There are several considerable mounds in the corporate limits of Harrisonburg, and others below on the lands of Ed. Doty, extending down to the Bayou Bushby, all of which are united by an embankment extending from mound to mound, running from the base of the pine hills in the village down to the Bushby. This embankment or levee is broken in some places, apparently by water. The mounds in Harrisonburg are arranged in an elliptical form. One of them near Mr. Doty's residence is quite large, and instead of being circular, is oblong, and near the summit there is a step or apron, above which rises the summit, forming a perfect cone.

All along the alluvion, from Harrisonburg to Catahoula Prairie, great quantities of broken pottery and arrow points can be found, and in fact, throughout the whole alluvion down Black River, which indicates a very dense population at some remote period. Mounds are found around Catahoula Lake, and on French Fork of Little River, all along down on the south side of Little River to its mouth, where those remarkable ones are seen which strike every beholder with astonishment. There are three large ones standing near together, in the point between Little and Black rivers, and the principal one was said by Dunbar and Hunter, in 1804, to be 80 feet high, but now it is not much over 50 feet. One of the large ones has been used by the citizens as a burial ground for twelve years; but since the property has changed hands, this practice has been discontinued. A large embankment, semicircular in shape, embraces these mounds, containing probably an area of sixty acres. There are twelve mounds in the field; that is, nine others besides these three large ones. About two miles below these mounds, on the bank of Black River, there is another embankment, similar to the one above mentioned, embracing probably an area of eight hundred acres. The diameter of the semicircle is nearly a mile and a half on the river bank. These embankments are cut through in various places and in several points by a large bayou, presenting the appearance of having been crevasses, or forced through by high water when the embankments were freshly thrown up. Pottery and flint are found abundantly on the whole line whenever turned up by the plough, and large oak trees are now growing on them. Some of the growth immediately below the residence of Major Liddell, on Black River, is small, indicating the location of a clearing or settlement of no very ancient date.

The following tradition is here given, with the hope that it may aid in the investigation of Indian history. Dr. John McBride Thompson came to this parish in 1819, and was fond of investigating these subjects: so in 1831, while on a visit to Georgia, he had opportunities of conversing with Creek Indians and half breeds, and in speaking about these very mounds at the mouth of Little River, he received the following statement from a very intelligent half breed Creek Indian: "The large mound at the mouth of Little River was called the GREAT FIRE, and was the central place of worship, as it was at the remarkable point where two rivers crossed, or where one river ran across another. The Creek Indians formerly occupied this country in great numbers, but having become involved in a war, or rather being invaded by a very powerful tribe from the sea coast, they were overpowered and forced to leave their homes and favorite place of worship, and retreat towards the east. Many of them betook themselves to boats, and retreated down the river into the Mississippi, through into Lake Ponchartrain, and scattered abroad over the country now known as Alabama and Georgia, and where they were found by the first white people." Those who are better acquainted with the Creeks, or rather Muscogees, may be able to give a more detailed account of this tradition. But the remarkable natural phenomenon here mentioned, of two rivers crossing, is enough to entitle the tradition to attention, as it is a fact, that for many months in the year the waters of the Tensas River run across Black River into Little River, and this last named river runs up stream. But is the reader satisfied from this that this tribe of Indians *built* these mounds?

In the early settlement of the country, there were many Indians of the Coshattees, Pascagoulas, and Choctaws, which latter were the most numerous, whose language was the most in use, and who gave names to the streams. There were a few villages on Hemphill's Creek, the Bushby and Funna Looah. While speaking of these things, it may be as well to mention what has been ascertained of the Indian names.

Ok-katta-hoola ; Beautiful white water. The whites have abbreviated this word to its present manner of spelling.

Oua-chitta.—This is the French spelling of an Indian word, and the *Oua* is thus put, because the French language has no letter W. In old books and maps the word Wisconsin is spelt *Ouis-consan*, and as this style has been changed, why not change the *Oua-chitta?*

The meaning of this word is somewhat uncertain, as different persons translate it differently. One says it signifies *Big Cat River ;* another, *Big Cow River ;* another says, *Ach* or *Atch-Chitta. Big River*, from the fact that it is the largest of the three, which here unite. The word *Ouah*, or *Ouach*, by some is translated *cow* or *buffalo*, while all unite upon the meaning of Chittas, or *Chitto*, as meaning *large* or *big*. Inquiries were propounded to the Indians by some of the early settlers, but they could not fully satisfy them on the subject. The above is all that could be gathered on this name.

Bushby, cut off ; Bogue *Bushby, cut-off Bayou. Bush-po* means knife. The Bushby is a cut-off from the Washitta to Little River.

Funna Looah, or *Looash*, means *burnt squirrel.* I know this is mostly spelt *Funny Louis ;* but as it is calculated to mislead, I propose the other spelling, as it is more consistent with the guttural intonation of their language.

Lake Looach, mostly spelt *Louis*, means Squirrel Lake, so also Bayou Looach, owing to the great numbers of those animals. This stream and lake are on Sicily Island.

Dugdemona, or Dugdimona, meaning not ascertained.

Castor is a French word, meaning *beaver.*

Beau Coup, also French, a name given to a part of the Dugdemona swamp, and means a *great deal, much*, or a *large quantity ;* the swamp is very extensive. The different creeks in the pine hills took names from those who settled on them, or from some caprice. Some of them change names with the settlers.

While speaking of the natural divisions of the parish, some mention was made of the amount of pine hill land. This is like all other pine woods country, and, therefore, needs no particular description. The first place where the pine hills come to the Washitta River is at Harrisonburg. The various creeks which run through the hills, find their outlets into the Washitta, the Catahoula Lake, and Little River above it. The writer has seen many such sections of country, but candor compels him to say, none have greater or better facilities for moving machinery by water-power than here on these streams. There is one place in particular on Hemphill's Creek, just below the old road which crosses about three miles from the lake, where the natural advantages for a large mill, or factory, are truly remarkable. At this point, the bed of the creek is on an immense layer of sandstone, which also shows itself on the eastern bank of the creek ; while, on the west side, there is an isolated hill making down, with an inclination, to within less than one hundred feet of the east bank ; while around this hill, on the west, there is a natural waste way for the escape of extra water. The letter V gives the best illustration of the place. Here there is the greatest abundance of good sandstone, for building purposes of any kind; the bottom lands of the creek, where the black walnut, cherry, magnolia, &c., indicate a strong soil, are suitable for fields and gardens, while the inexhaustible pine forests furnish building materials and fuel for ages to come; at the same time this, with the most excellent spring water, are sufficient guaranties for health. It is a matter of surprise that this situation has not been improved long ago. There are plenty of white persons near by, who could be soon engaged as operatives. This site is on land belonging to Thomas Holley. It is only a little over two miles to a bay which makes into the Lake Catahoula, and is navigable for six months of the year for large steam-boats.

The GEOLOGY next presents itself for consideration, and there is no doubt but, if the state should have her territory thoroughly examined by well-informed geologists, that they would find more rare specimens in this parish than any other.

Sandstone, of a very strong, fine, and durable texture, is met with in the vicinity of Harrisonburg; and it is well known that Mr. Forshey here procured the stone which was forwarded on to the Washington Monument, although it is known that there are better specimens to be found. Out-croppings of sandstone are seen at a great many different points in the parish, and is almost in constant view on the road from Harrisonburg to Catahoula Prairie, and on the bluff of the prairie. Immense beds of it are also seen on the hills of Sicily Island, and on all the creeks in the pine hills. In many places it is found in a beautiful lamellated form, broken into regular lines, like square masonry, which can be easily taken up and used in making chimneys. Much of the sandstone has silex in it.

Red sandstone, beautifully veined, has been found on the border of a small lake, on the south side of Little River, between Big and Clear Creeks. This is of a fine grain, and firm texture, which would bear a polish.

Alumine, vulgarly called *chalk*, both red and white, is found in immense hills in the upper edge of the parish, and also in the parish of Caldwell. This has been mistaken by most persons for chalk, and the place is called the "*Chalk-Hills*."

Red Ochre and Yellow Ochre, are found in considerable quantities on Salem Creek, which is a tributary of the Bushby.

Iron Ore is met with in almost all parts of the Pine-Hills, but especially in the greatest abundance in the western portion, embraced within the limits of the new parish which is to be laid off. The most noted places are near the Dugdemona and Castor; also, five or six miles below the fork of Castor bayou, twenty-five miles west of Harrisonburg, between Funna Looah and Chickasaw bayou, next to Little River.

Mica is found on digging wells, especially on the bluff lands of Sicily Island, at the depth of 25 and 30 feet.

Lead Ore, of a very pure quality, has been found in small parcels on Sugar Creek, near the "Chalk-Hills."

Stone Coal is found in considerable quantities near the fork of Dugdemona and Castor. This was partially quarried by Dennis Carlin, some years ago, but the specimens experimented with by him were not very good, probably from his not digging deep enough. There is no doubt but that an abundance of coal could be found, if proper means were used. Some of this was taken to Alexandria, and used there in a forge, and burned readily.

Salt Springs, of the very best quality, are here, in the western part of the parish, on the west side of Castor Bayou, four miles from the fork. The water boils up in the springs, and where it has spread out over the ground, the whole surface is covered with crystals. Mr. Fowler settled here as early as 1804, and has made salt in a poor way up to this time. The early settlers were constantly in the habit of resorting here to make their yearly supplies of salt, when it was selling for $2 50 cents per bushel. Some years ago, a well was dug here in a low place, or glade, and the water gushed up over the mouth, and is running that way yet. Another place, called the "Cedar Licks," is found on the west side of Dugdemona, two miles off from the stream: the water comes from springs, and is very highly charged with salt. Mr. Nelder visited this place a few years ago, and said it was as good a place to make salt as he could desire. He is well acquainted with the business, having been engaged at it in the West Indies.

This is twenty miles from Black Lake, the nearest navigable water, and is fifty miles north-west of Harrisonburg, and the same disance from Alexandria.

Lime land, or extensive beds of marine shells. This is found on Mr. Wagner's place. The whole soil is composed nearly entirely of very small marine shells, in a state of decay. The land is very dark, and is singularly limited and circumscribed, as it were, by a line; and the soil just beyond is of a yellowish color. The land looks like what is commonly called prairie land, and probably is a continuation of what is seen in Choctaw and Octibbeha counties, in Mississippi, and other places in Alabama.

Earthquake.—There is a singular undulatory appearance observed on Funna Looah, on the place of Mr. Umphrey. It looks like the ridges of a potato patch, lying parallel, with regular spaces of ten feet, the ridges being from eighteen to twenty-four inches high. This covers a great many acres of ground. Whether it is the result of an earthquake, or the action of water, it is hard to decide.

Chalybeate springs are found in many places, the most noted of which are near the Castor Bayou, but are so situated that the high water, every spring, covers them. There are others on Devil's Creek, at different points along Hemphill's Creek, in the pine hills on Sicily Island, and at the head of Lake Looah, at Mr. Clarke's.

Sulphur springs of many varieties, and in great abundance, throughout the pine-hill country. The most noted are what are called the "Buffalo," or White Sulphur Springs, on the road from Harrisonburg to Alexandria, where there is a post-office, two boarding-houses, and many other buildings. These springs were discovered by some hunters, and were well known some time before they were resorted to as a watering-place. The first building was made there in 1846; and since that time they have been much resorted to for many diseases, and hundreds of invalids can testify to their sanative properties.

In order that the learned, and those who feel an interest in such studies, may have a correct idea of the *mineralogy* of Catahoula Parish, the following summary is given. There is a slight notice of Dr. Holliday's splendid collection in De Bow's Review, for April, 1851, page 478, where the different specimens are mentioned. The state could not appropriate a moiety of its funds better than in purchasing such collections as this; and if proper encouragement were given, no doubt the collection could be greatly increased.

MINERALOGY OF NORTHERN LOUISIANA, ETC.

Dr. J. Holliday has made a large collection of the minerals in the region surrounding Harrisonburg. The collection is now in New-Orleans in charge of J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., editor of the "Southern Review," which gives a good exposition of the mineralogy of this section of the state. Before his collection was formed, a very limited knowledge was obtained thereof. For nine years past he has been industriously engaged in procuring every specimen he could, being anxious to elucidate, as far as possible, the minerals of the state: he has so far succeeded as to form a nucleus, which every addition thereto may increase its interest, and add new light to the mineralogy of Louisiana. As yet there has been no discovery made of the precious ores, though, from very credible information, silver has been found in the bed of a creek, six miles from Harrisonburg. Stone coal has been found abundant in a certain locality.

Dr. Holliday chiefly predicates interest in his collection, from their applicability to ornate purposes. Subject to the manipulations of a lapidary, a great number of them could be made quite pretty.

1st, Quartz.—Perfect crystalizations of this mineral occur on the Geode; some of which are found as large as the double fist; when fractured, exposing internally colorless crystalizations of a primary form, six-sided prisms, terminated by six-sided pyramids. Colorless pebbles of quartz, of the size of a hen's egg, and as small as a shot, abound in many localities here. When first taken out of the water, gives somewhat the appearance of sparkling dew drops. There is one specimen of the size and form of a hen's egg, perfectly transparent. These pebbles, no doubt, originally possessed the primary form of crystallization; but water, or other agencies, have thus worn out their angles, and thus rounded them.

2d, Agate.—If the agate could be made by art to look as beautiful as when immersed in limpid water, they would, indeed, be splendid. Their color then shows to advantage, and each imperceptible line is then distinctly seen. This region is prolific in agates, from those as large as the double fist to others no larger than the finger nail. The fortification agates are the most numerous, but we have several other varieties. There is one which exposes on its surface a number of concentric lines parallel to each other, a number of which is seen here and there on the face of the agate. A second variety presents a mammillated appearance—a third resembles the moss agate; this variety has only been found on the bar of the Ouachitta, opposite Harrisonburg. It is small, but a beautiful gem. The predominant color of our agates is yellow, but we find them of many other colors—*i. e.*, green, brown, chesnut, red, pink, purple, nearly black, and a cream color. They are all susceptible of a high polish, and specimens are found in this locality which would form handsome ornaments.

3d, Jasper.—There is a great variety of jasper found in this region—1st, dark red; 2d, dark brown; 3d, jasper combined with quartz and cacholong; 4th, ribbon jasper. These are also all susceptible of a high polish, and would make very pretty ornamental stones.

4th, Sardonyx.—They are found also on the same bar, and the only locality where I have met with them. A number of the specimens that I have met with are very beautiful. Dr. H. sent to Gen. Downs a specimen of sardonyx, of a crimson color, translucent with parallel lines of cacholong encircling it at the top.

5th, Red Cornelian abounds on the same bar. In the collection now in New-Orleans, there are many superior specimens, which bear comparison with any in the jewelry stores of the city. Yellow quartz or yellow cornelian is found also on the same bar in small amorphous masses.

6th, Onyx.—Several specimens of this gem have been collected in the same locality.

7th, Fossil Wood.—Found in great variety in the pine hills, as large as nearly a whole tree, and broken fragments of hickory, pine, ash, and other kind of woods. These petrifactions are all silicious, and susceptible of a very fine polish, and would be adapted to many ornamental purposes; they are of different colors, nearly black, yellow, green, and dusky white.

8th, Selenite is found in the alluvial land, where the pine hill encroaches near the river, in small masses, which, no doubt, was detached from considerable masses in the hills. I was informed, that, in digging a well in Catahoula prairie, that, twenty feet below the surface, the workmen observed a large formation of the selenite, and raised a mass of it weighing two hundred pounds. Could this not be used as a manure?

9th, Feldspar, of splendid quality, is found in several different places in rounded masses. By the light reflecting on its surface, it gives the appearance of burnished silver.

10th, ALUMINE in great abundance.

11th, MOUNTAIN WOOD, of a mahogany color.

12th, CHALCEDONY abounds here, of a muddy white color.

13th. ENCRENITE abounds here, and frequently impressions of the encrenite are found here upon rocks and stones, although a perfect encrenite has not been met with.

14th, ORATHERA are frequently found here in different locations.

15th, OOLITE.—Specimens of it have also been found.

VOLCANIC REMNANTS.

There are many evidences seen here of volcanic action, as manifested by the specimens of fused iron ore, which, whilst in a fluid state, and when cooling, sand and pebbles become combined with it, and is firmly adherent to the mass, some of which are very large. There are *geodes* of the same mineral, that seems to have been fused also; and whilst in a liquid state, and in violent ebullition, being suddenly cooled, has taken the form of a *geode*. Being porous, the moisture of the atmospheric air has oxidized its internal surface, and has given rise to a deposition of a red and yellow oxide of the metal. These will rattle when shaken. They are seen in immense quantities in the western part of the parish.

Another variety presents the appearance whilst in a state of ebullition; having suddenly cooled, gives the appearance of bubbles on the surface.

Great quantities of lava stone are found on Sicily Island up in the high pine hills, near Mr. Knapp's academy.

METEORIC STONES have been picked up at different places in the parish, specimens of which can be seen in the collection of Doctor Holliday.

On digging wells in the pine hills, and also in Catahoula prairie, beds of oyster shells have been found twenty feet below the surface.

Two feet below the surface on the bluff lands of Sicily Island, is found a hard pan of amorphous iron ore, mingled with pebbles about six inches thick. It is pretty uniformly diffused, and constantly found on digging ditches.

Having thus disposed of the mineralogy of our parish, the next subject will be the *Fauna* and *Flora*.

Fauna and *Flora—Oaks.*—Of these there are eleven kinds, viz.: black, white, red, pin, post, basket, overcup, Spanish dwarf, white-oak, live-oak, and black jack. There are a few live-oaks in the Catahoula Lake, on a sandy ridge. During this year there has been a great mortality amongst the oaks in the pine hills, both up on the hills and down on the creek bottoms. This was attributed by the people to the protracted drought.

Pines of three kinds, viz.: long leaf, short leaf, and lowland pine, this latter being found along in places subject to occasional inundation. The yellow long leaf pine is the best for building purposes, and attains often the height of 120 feet. Some stocks of square timber of this tree have been got 100 feet long clear of the limbs. A considerable amount of pine lumber and round logs is annually rafted down to New-Orleans, and different points on the Mississippi River.

Elm of three kinds—white, red, and slippery elm.

Maple—two kinds, common maple, and a few trees of sugar maple.

Poplar, of large and noble size in the pine hills, and on Sicily Island. It is said this tree is not met with west of this parish. (?)

Magnolia, or bay tree, in abundance in pine hills. *Birch* plentiful along the banks of Ouachitta River. *Black walnut*, *wild cherry*, *dog-wood*, found in pine hills. *Swamp dog-wood* in alluvial district. *Hickory* of five kinds, viz.: white, black, hard, shell-bark, and pig-nut. *Beach*, *holly*, *sour wood*, *wild peach*, *white bay*, and *sweet bay*. *Haws* of five kinds, viz.: *black*, *red*, *May*, *hog*, and *parsley* haw. *Plums* of four kinds: two kinds of *wild plums*, one of which ripens in June, the other in October. The *black* plum ripens in August, and not plentiful; and the *sloe*, or Chickasaw plum, a most delicious fruit, of a large size. *Wild* or *bastard China*, scarce, but seen in a few places far out in the pine hills, which bears a very strong resemblance to the common China tree in foliage, bark, and berries, but does not grow so large. *Cucumber* tree (magnolia augustiflora.) *Shawnee wood*, or *big-leaved cucumber* (magnolia glauca.) *Nine bark*, or *bear foot*, (hydrangea,) *Spanish mulberry*, *black mulberry*, *paw paw*, *horn bean*, *iron wood*, *spice wood*, *leatherwood*, *buckeye*, only a small shrub here, but bears the same kind of flower, and balls like those in the "Buckeye State." *Myrtles* of two kinds, *sumach* of two kinds—*honeysuckles*. *Cedar* is found in the west on Dugdemona, but not large. *Witch-hazle* blooms in November and December. *Black alder* along branches. The most of the swamp growths are omitted, as they have been so fully reported in the paper on Concordia. The Lynn grows on Sicily Island, and a few trees are seen along the streams in the pine hills.

Grape vines of four kinds, viz.: the *summer*; *fox*, or *small* sour grape; *raccoon* grape, has only one seed or kernal; *bunch grape*, growing on short vines, not more than two or three feet long; these ripen in summer, and are very sweet. The *bear grass* is found in the pine woods: this slightly resembles the ordinary swamp palmetto. It is said some *wild roses* have been found in the pine hills. There are many medicinal flowers and herbs very common there, which will be found in the

BOTANY, which is here given, although not complete, as it would require a much greater time and more labor than will be devoted to this, merely as a labor of love.

LIST OF BOTANICAL GROWTHS AND TREES, MADE OUT BY DR. CLARENDON PECK, ABOUT DEC., 1836.*

A.

- Ampelopsis cordata,
  - bipinnata
  - var. tripinnata
  - quinquefolia
- Amarantus spinosas
- Acer rubrum
- Actinomeris squarrosa
- Æsculus pavia
- Ambrosia artemisifolia
- Antirrhinum Canadense
- Aristolochia serpentaria
- Arum quinatum
  - dracontium
  - triphyllum
- Asclepias verticillata
  - obtusifolia
  - quadrifolia
  - variegata
- Anona triloba
- Azalea nudiflora
- Agaricus campestris
- Aralia spinosa
- Ammania ramosior
  - humilis
- Actæa alba
- Apios tuberosa
- Ascyrum Crux-Andræa
  - var. augustifolia
- Anthoceros Caroliniana
- Agrimonia Eupatoria
- Acmella repens
- Adiantum pedatum
- Allium——?
- Aronia Botryapium
- Aster multiflorus
- Arenaria glabra
- Anthemis cotula

B.

- Barbarea vulgaris
- Brunnichia cirrhosa
- Bumelia tenax
- Bignonia capreolata
  - radicans
- Borkhausia Caroliniana
- Betula nigra
- Bidens bipinnata

C

- Cardamine Virginica
- Cynoglossum amplexicaule
- Ceanothus Americanus
- Carpinus Americana
- Crategus spathulata
  - apiifolia
- Cephalanthus occidentalis
- Chenopodium anthelminticum
- Convolvulus——?
- Cornus Florida
  - circinata
- Chæmerops Adansonii
- Carya amara
  - olivæformis
- Castanea vesca
  - humila
- Cassia Marylandica
  - nictitans
- Callitriche verna
- Celtis occidentalis
- Cercis Canadensis
- Commelina Virginica
- Claytonia Virginica
- Callicarpa Americana
- Cardamine Ludoviciana
- Cupressus disticha
- Coreopsis——?
- Corallorhiza odontorhiza
- Corydalis aurea
- Campanula amplexicaulis
- Clematis crispa
  - reticulata
- Cornus stricta
- Circæa lutetiana

D.

- Datura Stramonium
- Daucus pusillus
- Diospyros Virginiana
- Dichondra Caroliniensis
- Decumaria sarmentosa
- Diodia hirsuta

E.

- Epiphegus Virginianus
- Euphorbia corollata
  - thymifolia
- Elephantopus Carolinianus
- Epigæa repens [? ? R.]
- Euonymus Americanus
- Eupatorium perfoliatum
  - cœlestinum
- Echites difformis

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* Dr. Riddell, of the University, kindly revised this list, though under instructions to make no material changes in it. The list is, doubtless, far from complete.—[ED.

Epilobium luteum
Erisymum Walteri
Erigeron Canadense
quercifolium
Philadelphicum
Erythrina herbacea

F.
Fraxinus Jugandifolia

G.
Gnaphalium plantagineum
purpureum
Gelseminum sempervirens
Geranium Carolinianum
Gleditschia triacanthus
monosperma
Gonolobus viridiflorus
Gymnocladus Canadensis
Gratiola anagallioides
Galium tinctorium
asprellum

H.
Hydrangea quercifolia
Hopea tinctoria
Hottonia palustris
Hypericum corymbosum
Virginicum
Hydrocotyle umbellata
Hydrolea quadrivalvis
Hydrocharis spongiosa
Hibiscus grandiflorus
Carolinianus
Halesia diptera
Hamamelis Virginica
Hedysarum rotundifolium

I.
Ilex prinoides
opaca
Isnardia cylindrica
sphærocarpa
Ipomea coccinea
Itea Virginica
Iris cuprea

J.
Jungermannia parella
Juglans nigra
Justicia humilis

K.
Krigia amplexicaulis

L.
Lusula campestris
Leonurus Cardiaca
Laurus Sassafras
Benzoin
Liatris——— ?
Liquidambar styraciflua
Liriodendron tulipifera
Listeria cordata
Lithospermum latifolium
Lobelia cardinalis
Claytoniana
Ludwigia——— ?
Lysimachia ciliata

M.
Miegia macrosperma
Melia Azedarach
Menispermum Lyoni
Mikania pubescens
Mimulus alatus
Mitchella repens
Mollugo verticillata
Momordica echinata ?
Monotropa uniflora
Morus rubra

Myosurus minimus
Myrica cerifera
Myosotis arvensis
Marrubium vulgare
Mentha tenuis
Maclura aurantiaca
Melothria pendula
Magnolia grandiflora
cordifolia
Malva Caroliniana
Marchantia tenella
Monarda Bradburiana

N.
Nyssa aquatica
multiflora
Neottia tortilis
Nymphæa odorata

O.
Orobanche uniflora
Oxalis stricta
violacea
Ostrya Virginica
Œnothera——— ?
Obolaria Virginica
Onosmodium molle

P.
Polypodium incanum
Potentilla simplex
Phlox aristata
Phalangium croceum, *Michaux*
Pancratium rotatum
Passiflora incarnata
lutea
Pedicularis——— ?
Physalis obscura
Phytolacca decandra
Plantago pusilla
major
Virginica
Polymnia uvedalia
Podophyllum peltatum
Platanus occidentalis
Polygonum aviculare
erectum
Virginianum
Populus angulata
Potamogeton natans
Poa annua
Phyllanthus obovatus
Proserpinacca palustris
Pentstemon lævigatus
Parietaria Pennsylvanica
Phryma leptostachya

Q.
Quercus nana
palustris

R.
Ranunculus abortivus
pusillus
nitidus
recurvatus
fascicularis
oblongifolius
Robinia pseudo-acacia
Rhus toxicodendron
glabra
Ruellia——— ?
Rhamnus Carolinianus
Rubus trivialis
villosus

S.
Styrax grandifolium
læve
glabrum

Spermacoce glabra
Senecio lobatus
Spergula saginoides
Salvia lyrata
Scrophularia Marylandica
Sisyrinchium anceps
Solanum nigrum
Caroliniense
Spigelia Marylandica
Sambucus Canadensis
Sagittaria obtusa
Sida Spinosa
Scutellaria lateriflora
pilosa
Saururus cernuus
Schizandra coccinea
Smilax pseudo-China
Sabbatia angularis
Schrankia uncinata
Stillingia sylvatica
ligustrina

T.
Tradescantia Virginica
Trillium sessile
Thlaspi bursa-pastoris
Tillandsia usneoides
Trifolium repens
Tephrosia Virginica

U.
Ulmus fulva
alata
nemoralis
Americana
Urtica pumila
urens. [This cannot be the U. urens, Linn. It is probably either U. purpurescens, Nutt, or the U. Aureliana, Riddell.—M. S. Plants of Louisiana, No. 1582.—R.]
Uraspermum procumbens
Utricularia vulgaris
gibba

V.
Vitis rotundifolia
vulpina
riparia
æstivalis
labrusca
Vicia parviflora
Veronica peregrina
Verbena aubletia
Verbascum Thapsus
Vaccinium——— ?
Viburnam prunifolium
Viscum verticillatum
Viola septemloba
cucullata
pedata
palmata
Muhlenbergii

W.
Wenlandia populifolia

Y.
Yucca filamentosa

Z.
Zizyphus volubilis
Zanthoxylum tricarpum
Zapania nodiflora

Animals.—In the early settlement of this country the bulk of the property consisted in neat cattle, as can be ascertained by inquiry, or reference to the records of the Probate Court, where this species of property occupies the pages very prominently. Even now, many persons in the western part of the parish have large droves of cattle, because the lands are very poor, cotton gins are scarce, and the market rather inaccessible. *Mules* were not numerous in the parish till within the last fifteen years. The Lovelaces had two mules as early as 1812–13, on Sicily Island. At this time the planters prefer them as work animals. In 1837, the *charbonne* appeared on Sicily Island and killed sixteen horses and two mules of Dr. Nuttall, and two mules of Dr. Peck's. A few years after that some mules and cattle of Gayoso Lovelace were killed by it; and a negro man, in skinning an ox, got the disease in his eye, which produced violent local inflammation: the scalp and face were immensely swollen, and the eye was entirely destroyed.

Bears were very numerous in early times, as has been before stated. The meat of these animals formed a very important article of diet; the oil was used for cooking, and to grease leather machinery; also used medicinally, and to dress the hair of the beaux and belles, even as it is at this day. The skins were used for many domestic purposes, and also as articles of commerce. In G. W. Lovelace's mercantile books, is seen this bill of articles, shipped on a keel, or flat-boat, in 1813: *Bear skins*, 243; *Deer skins*, 450; *Beaver skins*, 28. These animals, when very fat, weigh from 500 to 700 pounds. It has been repeatedly asserted by old hunters, that no person has ever found a she bear with the cubs in her womb. But Mr. Henry and Stephen Holstein, on Sicily Island, state positively that they have seen the young frequently about the size of a large flat bean, but perfectly formed. They were instructed by Indians how to search for them. When the cubs are first born they are not as large as a grown rat, and are devoid of hair or fur, like a young rat. The dam is very careful and tender in her nursing of them; she sits down on her haunches and holds them to the teats while they suck. Several citizens of Sicily Island went, in the month of November, 1851, on a bear hunt, up in the swamps of Franklin Parish, taking about thirty hounds and curs, an ox-team and wagon, two negroes, plenty of tents, bedding, corn, and other necessaries, and were out more than two weeks, and killed ten bears and five deer. They would have killed more, but unluckily their best dog was killed, and the others so much crippled that they were compelled to quit. The region of country where they hunted was so low, flat, and wet, that they could not haul away their meat: so they constructed a scaffold ten feet high, salted the meat away upon it, covered it with a tent, and so left it, hoping at some time to get it away.

Deer are sometimes found of variegated colors, such as roan, piebald, and spotted. Judge Taliaferro had one as a pet some years ago, that was entirely white all over, and even the eyes were white. There was a wild one of the same description seen a few years ago on Sicily Island.

There is a difference between the deer in the pine hills and those in the swamp, and this is observable in those killed on the north and south side of Catahoula Lake. Those in the pine hills drop their young in May and June, while those in the alluvion drop theirs in July and August. They very seldom have more than two at one time.

Panthers were at one time quite numerous, but of late years have been thinned out and chased off. Even a few years ago, as many as eight were killed in one season on the island. Many years ago, a panther attacked a horse in the woods, and killed it. A mover, as late as 1836, had one to attack one of his horses while camped on the island, and he shot it while it was on the horse. One killed an Indian at his camp, and ate what he wanted of the carcase before the other Indians came up. One attacked old Mr. John Lovelace in his camp, when moving from Red River to the island: but his faithful negro, Jupiter, shot the animal and killed it before his master was hurt. In the scuffle, though, a negro woman, in attempting to club the panther, struck Mr. L. a terrible blow on the head, which nearly proved fatal.

Wolves are very numerous all through the pine hills; but there are more in the wild ravines of the island than anywhere else, and sometimes are very troublesome and destructive to young lambs and pigs. Even this fall they are very numerous, and the citizens have to set poison for them. They are of as many different colors as the domesticated dog. There is also the *catamount* and *wild cat; salamander* or ground rat, having long pouches on each side; wild *ground mice*, and *moles*. *Beavers* formerly were plentiful in this country, and the skins were used for many purposes. There are two *beaver dams* on the lands of Dr. Peck at this time.

Alligators are not so numerous as in early times; and it is stated by those who have had the amplest opportunities for observing them, that they seldom exceed twelve feet in length. The oil is suitable for many domestic purposes, particularly in dressing leather. Formerly it was a good deal used to grease machinery. It is said to be so very subtle and penetrating, that when suffered to remain for some time in a pot it will penetrate the metal. It is highly charged with the musky odor, which never leaves it, and on this account is very nauseating to man, beast, and insect. If much is rubbed on a horse, it will deprive him of appetite for two or three days. One large alligator will yield from eight to twelve gallons of oil, which is worth a dollar a gallon. It is best rendered by a slow, gentle heat, and when proper care is taken, is very transparent.

Striped lizard, or racer; *bull snake*, or blowing snake; *jointed snake*. The writer has never seen one of these snakes, but has ample testimony of their presence in the country. They break readily from the stroke of a small rod, but never reunite. They are not numerous nor poisonous. *Coach-whip* snake. *Scorpion*, vulgarly called *stinging lizard*, is the true scorpion of natural history, and is very plentiful in the pine hills. *Centipede*, also abundant in the same locality. These are said to be very poisonous; but Henry Holstein said he saw one sting a schoolmaster on the naked shoulder, without producing any bad effects.

[To be concluded in our next.]

ART. IV.—COTTON PLANTERS' CONVENTION.

[The Cotton Planters' Convention, to be held in May next, at Montgomery, Alabama, will, we trust, be attended by large delegations from all of the cotton states. In the *interim*, we recommend to our readers the following interesting letter, which foreshadows a plan of action for the Convention, should it be thought more practicable and efficacious than others that have been proposed.] —EDITOR.

J. D. B. DE BOW, ESQ.—I do not expect to attend the Convention of Cotton Planters, proposed to be held in May next, in Montgomery; and will take the liberty of submitting to you, and, if you think proper, to your readers, the plan which I proposed at the late Macon Convention. It was there submitted in the shape of a few resolutions, which found favor with the committee of twenty-one, who twice recommended their adoption. On the last day, however when not a fifth of the members were present, the report of the committee was set aside, and the "Florida Scheme," as published in your November number, was adopted as a substitute.

Strange to say, the Macon correspondent of the New-York Courier and Enquirer represented me as the zealous advocate of the substitute. I promptly denied the slander, in a letter addressed to the editor, and received an apology for the mistake, with the offer to publish my plan, if I would forward it. I did so; but as yet have seen no publication of either my denial or the plan.

It would be well if every scheme which may be brought before the Convention should previously be submitted to the view of the planting interest, so as to be maturely considered and well understood. My experience as a member of two such conventions, convinces me of the policy of such a course.

The evils complained of by the cotton planters are, that the prices of their staple production are *irregular*, and too often not *remunerative*. The first-named evil has at times been disastrously felt by others than growers of cotton; and if a remedy can be devised, the good will not be confined to the cotton planter.

These fluctuations sometimes cause a difference of from *thirty* to *sixty millions of dollars* in the sales of two crops: a difference productive not only of loss to the planter, but which sometimes tells with disastrous effect upon foreign exchanges and banking institutions. These fluctuations are always in the inverse ratio of the production. Thus, while a crop of only 2,200,000 bales of cotton will yield to the producers *one hundred and ten millions of dollars*, a crop of 2,800,000 bales will pay only *sixty millions;* and the bounty of Heaven, in the gift of good seasons, proves more destructive to the planter than seasons of drought, flood, storms and frosts. This loss of fifty millions of dollars falls with its full weight upon the planter, but is also felt by all engaged in, or dependent upon, commerce; and they are equally interested in the discovery of a remedy; yet it is chiefly by such that Cotton Planters' Conventions are jeered at and ridiculed. True it is, that no good resulted from the action of the Convention held in Macon, in the year 1839, and that as little can be expected from that lately held in the same city; but it does not follow that an efficient remedy cannot be found: at any rate, the importance of the object will justify renewed effort.

The *dogma* "that prices must and will be regulated by the relations of *supply* and *demand*," is by many deemed conclusive refutation of all hope of success. But the question to be solved is, "whether the *supply* cannot be so regulated as to secure *regular* and *remunerating prices?*" If it can, the remedy is found.

If the cotton crop of the United States belonged to one man, the remedy would be obvious. Naming his price, he would sell only so much as is required for consumption, and leave the residue under his cotton shed, to supply deficiency in the crop of next year; and if the surplus was large, he would plant less next year. Such a course would be efficient for the object; and the only obstacle to similar action by the cotton planters generally, is the difficulty of procuring concert of action. The difficulty is great, but I think not insuperable.

Besides the loss attendant upon a large crop, the planter is often subjected to loss upon a small one, because of his ignorance of the extent of the crop of the country. Cotton is the agricultural staple of some eight or ten states, covering a vast extent of country. Seasons are often favorable in some districts, and unfavorable in others. Dealers in cotton take measures to inform themselves, with sufficient accuracy, of the extent of the crop, and are prepared to go into the market with knowledge of its value. It is their interest, too, to exaggerate its extent; and this is annually done by publication of what purports to be extracts of letters written in cotton states, but really fabricated for the purpose. The planter, ignorant of its real amount, and influenced by such statements, disposes of his crop at low prices, before the falsehood is discovered.

For *low prices*, a remedy would be found, in an agreement to plant less cotton; but that would not prevent *irregularity* in price, because good and bad seasons would still cause irregular production; and although *remunerative*, prices would be *irregular*. A bad season might also so reduce the supply, as to throw out of employment a large portion of capital, and of operatives, now engaged in its manufacture. Such a state of things would be deplorable, and in the end injurious to the grower. His interests, and those of the manufacturer, are best subserved by regular and reasonable prices.

The first thing to be done by the Convention, should be the adoption of a plan for ascertaining the extent of each year's crop. This is essential to all judicious and efficient action. I propose to effect it by the agency of Planters' Societies, to be organized in every county in the cotton states. By districting the counties, and distributing the labor among the members, the crop of each county can be ascertained by the middle of January every year. The county societies should immediately thereafter report the amount of the crop to a committee, or some officer, residing at the seat of the state government, who should report the aggregate crop of the state to a central committee, to be appointed by the Cotton Planters' Convention; upon which central committee should also devolve the labor of obtaining all attainable information respecting the probable demand by manufacturers at home and abroad—the supplies which may be expected from other countries—and, generally, all the information in its power, connected with the production and consumption of cotton. The information referred to, and the reports from the state committees, may be in the possession of the central committee by the 1st April in each year, and should be published; and the planters advised what proportion of their respective crops should be sold, and what retained.

But inasmuch as a considerable portion of the crop is annually sold before the report of the central committee could be made, I propose an agreement among the planters, "not to sell more than two-thirds of their respective crops before receipt of said report, and *not to sell any for a price less than agreed upon.*" And further, "not to sell more of the reserved one-third, than shall be advised by the central committee." For illustration of my meaning: Supposing the crop to be 2,700,000 bales, the sale of two-thirds would amount to 1,800,000—leaving 900,000 bales on hand. If advised that the consumption of American cotton would be only 2,200,000 bales, each planter should then sell only *four* out of every nine bales which had been reserved, and retain the remaining five bales under his cotton shed, to await future demand, or supply deficiencies in future crops.

Experience has shown that a crop of 2,700,000 bales, thrown upon the market, will reduce the price of cotton to about five cents; whereas, a crop of only 2,200,000 bales will raise it to thirteen cents, or more. These are extreme prices; the first not remunerative to the planter, the last tending too much to stimulate production elsewhere. The interests of all parties, producers, manufacturers and consumers, will be best served by moderate and regular prices—say, about ten cents per pound. At that price, two-thirds of his crop will put more money into the planter's pocket than would the whole crop, sold at six cents.

I have said that the difficulty of obtaining concert of action among planters, so widely separated from each other, is great; but my confidence in its practicability is based upon their obvious interest, and their good common sense. Although less expert at figures than the speculators in their staple, the least informed among them can see that *ten bales* of cotton, sold at ten cents, will yield more money than *fifteen bales*, sold at six cents. And, aided by past experience of the evils resulting from want of organization, it demands no extraordinary faith in their good sense, to believe that concert may be obtained.

The only objection ever made to this plan, is, "that the planters will not act in good faith, but will secretly sell more than their proportion of their crops." Now, without claiming for cotton planters a higher character for honor and integrity, I may say, that they possess as much of those qualities as any other class of our population. And although some may, and will, act basely, the number will be small, and their unfaithfulness will but little affect the result. I may say the same of another small class, found in every community —Solomons, in their own conceit, who make it a point of honor never to think, or act, like their neighbors; and who will, perhaps, refuse to enter into the agreement. But if the plan suggested be tried, breaches of faith will be fewer and fewer every year; and where a sense of honor will not restrain, fear of exposure and shame will. Without some general concert of action, *no plan can succeed:* and that now proposed presents as few objections as any other. It proposes no advance of money—no risk of loss—and no change in the pursuits of the planter. If adopted, it must do good. It can do no harm. You have, in the preceding, my plan for regulating the price of cotton.

There is another subject connected with the cotton interest which I have much at heart; and which, in the shape of a resolution, I submitted to the Convention. I know not whether it was adopted, having left the meeting upon discovery of the determination of the small number present to force the question upon the adoption of the substitute. My resolution recommended the erection of cotton manufactories in every county in the cotton states. These factories to commence with *spinning:* and afterwards connecting the business of weaving into cloth.

Spinning requires little skill in the operatives; and *yarns* sell for double the price of the raw material. The facility of obtaining yarn from neighboring factories, would enable our platners to clothe their families and servants better and cheaper than now. There are, upon every plantation, servants who, at times, would be inefficient in the field, while perfectly able to work the loom. This, however, is the least of the benefits which would result from the system of manufacturing. Millions of pounds of cotton yarn are annually exported from Great Britain to the continent of Europe, and to other portions of the world; and the business of *spinning* is said to be more profitable than that of *weaving.* Our southern factories would obtain the raw material at, at least, twenty per cent. cheaper than those of England; and southern yarn and cloth would monopolize both the foreign and the home market. Let each county commence with a factory of one thousand spindles; and let the planters agree to invest, annually, ten per cent. of their crops in the extension of such factories; and in a few years they would manufacture the whole crop of the country, and export it, in the shape of yarn and cloth. Such a course would double the value of our exports, and would add to the prosperity of the country more than the gold mines of California, twice told. Its effect upon the banking institutions and commercial interests of the country cannot be sufficiently estimated. But for the gold of California, these interests would, ere now, have been prostrate, and the country experiencing a recurrence of the scenes of the year 1837. The mines of California may cease to be productive; but not so the proceeds of the cotton fields.

The manufacture of the cotton crop would employ as many operatives as are engaged in its production; and the food and sustenance of this body of operatives would enable our planters so to diversify their agricultural operations, as to transfer one-half of their labor from cotton to the production of breadstuffs.

But this scheme of manufacturing the cotton crop has another aspect, which commends itself to the favor of the patriot, philanthropist and Christian. In the cotton states there is a numerous white population scattered over the pine barrens, and subsisting by hunting and raising stock. From their dispersed condition they cannot have either schools or churches; and their children must grow up without religion, and ignorant of even the alphabet. What greater curse can be inflicted upon a republic, than an ignorant and irreligious population? Such, however, must be the fate of large portions of the southern states, unless a remedy can be found. That remedy will be furnished by the erection of cotton factories, around which will be collected our piney-wood population; and schools and churches will be supplied.

A volume might be written upon this head; but I will desist.

JOHN G. GAMBLE.

ART. V.—THE REPUBLIC OF HOLLAND.*

ANALYSIS.

THE SITUATION OF HOLLAND; HER DYKES; HER FIGURE IN HISTORY—SKETCH OF THE HISTORY OF THE NETHERLANDS; THEIR DISCONTENTS—THE PROGRESS OF REPUBLICANISM, LIKE MONARCHISM, SLOW AND GRADUAL—THE MIXED CHARACTER OF THE REPUBLIC; THE STADTHOLDER; HIS MODELS, ABSOLUTE PRINCES—DEVELOPMENT OF THE SYSTEM OF CHECKS AND BALANCES; FREQUENT COLLISIONS BETWEEN THE SEPARATE POWERS RENDERED THE STADTHOLDER'S AUTHORITY NECESSARY—REP. OF HOLLAND COMPARED WITH THOSE OF CARTHAGE, ROME AND UNITED STATES—RELIGIOUS TOLERATION—FREEDOM OF THE PRESS—COMMERCE AND WEALTH; TO WHAT ATTRIBUTABLE—MODERN HOLLAND AND THE DUTCH.

To the casual observer, who casts his eye over Europe, it may seem strange that such a province as Holland—or even all Germany, should have figured so extensively in history.

He traces the long lines of dykes, interspersed with canals and standing lakes, and fields of wet, barren loam—all lying below the tide, which threatens them from without, and wonders that they have not long ago been given up to the water.

Yet this little section comprises one of the most remarkable portions of the globe; remarkable for its many strange vicissitudes, in peace and war. Here have sat the great wise men of the earth, deliberating on questions affecting the welfare of Germany and the world. Here have figured the greatest generals. Here have stood the bravest armies—and here have been fought the bloodiest battles.

We can scarcely, without a shudder, contemplate the bloody scenes, the awful struggles, which have been here enacted on this so-called "battle-field of Europe."

Holland has annually to expend vast sums of money to protect her precarious possessions from inundation. The labor necessary for constructing her dykes, (the materials for which are usually brought from Norway,) might well stagger any but her own indomitable sons.

A brief sketch of her earlier history may neither be inappropriate nor uninteresting:

In the year 1477, the Netherlands, which had been governed by the Dukes of Burgundy, fell by marriage to the House of Austria. Under Maximilian, the seventeen provinces were formed into one state; under Charles V. they became united with Spain; under Philip II. the seven northern provinces—Guelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Overyssel, Groningen, and Friesland, becoming dissatisfied, first began upon that career which is embraced in the present subject.

As early as the year 1566–7, their discontents seem to have commenced. It was then they began to realize that they were ruled by a foreign sovereign. Philip was not the man that Charles, his father, had been; and the Netherlands were not slow to find it out. His ideas and *notions;* in a word, his whole character was essentially

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* Several years ago we published an interesting paper upon the System of Levees and Dykes in Holland, contributed by the Hon. A. B. Roman, of Louisiana, which the reader will consult to advantage.—[Ed.

Spanish; nor did he attempt to conceal his preferences for his Spanish subjects. The high nobility—the proud aristocracies of the Netherlands, each day, saw themselves supplanted in the favors of the king, by some haughty, overbearing, and not unfrequently worthless, Spaniard.

Nor was this all—religious persecution began to crowd its lists with victims and martyrs;—neither high nor low could escape its fatal venom;—though for awhile disguised, the Inquisition, which has so *blackened* the history of Spain, soon began openly to show its frightful visage.

The Hollanders have ever been described as a very slow, phlegmatic people:—and so they are. There can be no doubt, but that a man less austere, ostentatious and haughty, than Philip—though equally ambitious and selfish, would have found no great difficulty in satisfying their demands.

Charles was no less ambitious. There can be but little doubt that his policy was nearly the same in respect to religious toleration; yet his natural foresight had been less blinded by pride. He had learned to compromise what could not be carried out openly and direct.

It will not now be necessary to follow out the administration of the Duchess of Parma, assisted by Grenville—nor the separate courses of the Princes of Orange, of Egmont, or Horn—nor even the conduct of the cruel Duke of Alva, who came from Spain with an army to succeed the Duchess—nor his successor, Requesnes:—all the incidents herewith associated must be considered as links in a chain of consequences—springing from one cause, and tending toward *one object.*

In perusing this portion of Holland, we are carried through many strange scenes and vicissitudes—we witness much suffering, much cruelty, and many sieges. It was at this time that the rich city of Antwerp fell—a city of commercial importance, probably equal to any in Europe at that time.

Close to this siege appears the "Pacification of Ghent"—(1576;) the object of which seems to have been the expulsion of foreign troops, and the suspension of the severe religious edicts of Alva.

This pacification was indeed ratified—but soon violated by the king. In 1579, the Provinces took another more important step, and entered into the "Union of Utrecht."

Already had their movements assumed a more solemn and revolutionary character; already, under the guidance of the Prince of Orange, had they begun to appreciate their own position, and nerve their spirits for the worst. The coin, which was at this time struck off, significantly "represented a ship laboring amidst the waves, unassisted by sails or oars," with this expressive motto: "Incertum quo fata ferant."

In 1581, the provinces solemnly renounced their allegiance to Philip. Here, then, may we date the birth of the republic. And though we might find it in a more settled state, if we should trace its history for a few more years, when, after various vicissitudes, in 1609, a truce for twelve years was agreed upon, and the provinces recognized as independent; yet, since no new element is therein developed, it may be allowable to leave the subject *here* for a time.

Let us then look back to note what progress has been made: to see according to what principles this great and important revolution has been moving.

This part of the subject opens to us a broad field—a field well worthy the attention of the philosopher; and especially the philosopher of liberal principles.

To trace the upward progress of republicanism, has ever been a pleasing task to an American;—and yet, one not without its pains—for at no time has he been allowed to witness more than the partial success of those principles on which the heart had been set. Yet this has buoyed him up—that no *earnest striving* has been in vain—that at each step some actual progress has been made. At times it might have seemed retrograde; yet in the end he finds that some overruling Providence has directed all.

And thus it is in the development of any great and important principle. The course and order of nature is slow, and ages are required.

Monarchy did not attain its modern perfection at one spring. It rose with convulsive throes—with earnest, *anxious* strugglings, from the confused elements of *political chaos* and feudalism.

Such has been the progress of republican principles. One age attempting to reform the abuses of another, runs into the opposite extreme; released from despotism, the most objectionable forms of democracy were for one instant embraced with the greatest enthusiasm: and when abuses had gone beyond all bounds, with as little ceremony was a dictator placed at the head of affairs. Then must the advocates of free principles hide their heads, and in turn abide their season of disgrace and contumely. Then comes in aristocracy, to exert her most baneful and destructive influence.

This, in a measure, is the history of the ancient republics. Thus did they alternate between licentiousness and oppression.

The republic of Holland was of a mixed nature. In its composition, aristocracy entered largely. The stadtholder's authority was very considerable. On the one hand "too great for the chief of a republic"—on the other, "too little for the head of a monarchy." His only models, at that time, were absolute sovereigns.

William, Prince of Orange, for a long time possessed this authority. For his many great virtues, for his wisdom and military talents, he has left an enviable reputation. To him belongs the glory of having freed his country from a grievous yoke; of having been in all times wisest to foresee, ablest and most willing to avert dangers and difficulties. His consistent firmness, his *uniform* prudence and *never-failing* patriotism, have placed him high among the world's heroes. And yet, that the authority which he wielded might have been inconsistent with the interests of the republic, may be proved by reference to the latter part of the life of his son Maurice. How many abuses may be traced to this one source! How many rights violated! The disgraceful termination of the dispute between the

Arminians and Gomarists—the illegal Synod of Dort—the imprisonment of Grotius, and closely following, the martyrdom of that purest of patriots, Olden Barneveldt—are quite sufficient for its condemnation.

Still I think that the fault may be justly charged to the necessary constitution of the republic, owing to the nature of its elements. The seven provinces, though contiguous, were yet very dissimilar. Nothing but an absolute necessity seems to have held them together. Friesland was essentially a kingdom; Brabant and Guelderland, dukedoms; Holland and Flanders, earldoms or counties; and Utrecht, a bishopric.

There was then need of centralization in some form, some common point, around which these discordant elements might arrange themselves.

Yet the history of this portion of the republic has been of infinite value to our own government. Here was perfected that important system of *checks* and *balances* which, though unwieldy to those who did not fully understand its nature, is yet, under a more skilful organization, one of the great *ramparts* of freedom.

Not only each state, but each city enjoyed an independence of its own. The senators were chosen for life, and had the privilege of appointing the members of the provincial states. The members of the states-general were elected by the aristocracy. The states-general of course represented the general government, yet its authority depended very much upon the *will* of the separate states at home; and what illustrates still farther their *cautious individuality*, is the fact, that not only a majority but a *concurrence* of votes, was necessary for the adoption of any measure.

Next came the council of state, with its fixed number of deputies, of which Holland sent three; Guelderland, Zealand and Utrecht, each two; Friesland, Overyssel and Groningen, each one. The duties of this council were, to deliberate concerning the security, defence and protection of the states, and to take charge of all military and financial affairs.

To these were added the chamber of accounts and the council of admiralty. The former consisted of two members from each province. Its name sufficiently attests its character—its authority was nothing more than its name implies. The latter was of more importance, since in it was vested the authority over naval affairs.

This brief outline conveys a faint impression of the constitution of the republic. Had these separate powers been more critically defined, they would have been more efficient and far less objectionable. But as it was, they came into frequent collisions, and the superintendence of some sovereign power made most necessary. Here then came in the authority of the stadtholder—a power which, though obnoxious to abuses, was yet most essential to the least degree of concert and success.

As I have before mentioned, the progress which Holland had made in the science of republicanism, was in the more perfect development of *checks* and *balances*, while at the same time she retained many of the faults of former republics.

If we compare her to the ancient republics of Carthage and Rome, I think we shall find that she was more aristocratic than the former, and *less* than the latter; for although Carthage selected her senate from men of "birth, merit and wealth," yet a *concurrence* of votes was necessary for action, and in case of any disagreement, the question was referred to the people. There was also a committee of 104 members, appointed to watch and restrain the ambition of the great families. To this committee the admirals and generals had to render their accounts.

In many respects, both in legislation and commerce, Holland very much resembled Carthage.

Rome was more aristocratic, since more authority was placed in the hands of the patricians, to the positive exclusion of the lower orders.

But how does Holland stand beside our own government? We believe that our system of balances and checks is in no way inferior to hers, no less effectual: we are in part indebted for *it* to her experience, and we believe it has been much improved. We think its graduations more simple—its operation less subject to collisions. The latter is a historic fact. It is more simple, because more uniform; it is less subject to collisions, because the separate powers are more accurately defined.

The various interests, secured under our constitution, are no less diverse and complex; and yet *with us* the state comes less frequently in conflict with the general government, and the general government is less dependent upon the states. Ours is a *nation*—hers was a federative union, and that in an imperfect state; since her inhabitants were not yet ripe for the more perfect development of that kind of confederation, which Guizot pronounces most difficult, and which requires the greatest intelligence and moderation on the part of a people.

But we must not forget that much is due to the peculiar circumstances in which Holland was placed. She was like a "stranger in a strange land;" for a long time she stood alone, unrecognized by the surrounding nations; now begging aid of England—now of France—while either of these two powers seemed ready to take any advantage of her weakness. This was no time for idle speculation; before her stood the naked reality, while stern necessity was crowding her forward.

Yet there is one feature in the history of this republic, which shines forth in resplendent beauty. Her shores were open to the oppressed of every land. Here was an asylum for the persecuted of Germany, France, Hungary, and even England; and in *these* she received the learned men of every science—the ablest teachers of every useful art.

Let it be the glory of Holland that she was first to teach the world the great and true principles of religious toleration. Let it be her glory, that through every vicissitude, exposed to dangers from without and within, she kept inviolably sacred the *freedom* of the press.

These are the two brightest gems in her *national diadem*. It may be reasonably deemed a subject for wonder, that the provinces, in so short a time, in the very face of war and devastation, should have arisen to so great a height of wealth and power. Yet that such was their progress cannot be denied, and still our age is very prone to forget the real eminence which their commerce attained. Though their own country produced scarcely a single material for ship building—though possessed of no mines, and though *loaded* with taxes—they yet soon stood without a rival, the first commercial people on the globe.

In Europe alone they had 1,200 merchant ships, and more than 70,000 sailors actively engaged. They built annually 2,000 vessels. In the year 1598, 80 ships sailed from their ports for the Indies and America; and Sir William Petty, estimating the whole shipping of Europe, in 1690, at 2,000,000 tons, reckons that of Holland as high as 900,000, or near one-half.

The fact must be attributed to the central position of their country; to the liberal character of their government; to religious toleration; to the fact that persecution and oppression were raging with peculiar violence in other countries; and to the *innate character* of their people.

The Dutch were noted for their steady, persevering and well-directed habits of industry. They have, through every vicissitude, retained something of the qualities of their early progenitors, the ancient Batavii, whose bravery and love of freedom have been described to us by Tacitus. They formed the flower of the old Roman armies, and were said to have won for Cæsar the victory of Pharsalia. They were noted for their slow, *conservative* habits. So are the Dutch: the spirit of enterprise was *slow* to take hold of them; their enthusiasm did not drive them on to imaginary romantic exploits, but kindled in their breasts a steady, *perpetual* fire, which, once lighted, impelled them on to a work of *reality*, an enterprise for a life. Then it is we see them starting forth for the most distant parts of the earth—"not indeed the first to discover new worlds, but the first to make the name of European respected and revered."

But the days of the republic are past, and Holland in a measure seems to have outlived her glory. Since the time of Bonaparte, she has been governed by kings; and though of respectable rank, she has ceased to figure so extensively in history. The Dutchman now, by common consent, seems to stand the representative of a class some centuries behind its age. To him is attributed every outlandish oddity; of him we hear but seldom except in jokes. He seems to walk about the thoroughfares with his "broad brim," a listless *indifferent* spectator to the busy scenes around—a very Rip Van Winkle, dead to the spirit of progress and improvement, involved in "*mists* and *doubts*."

The mention of his name brings "Hans" vividly before the mind. His chief pest is the *Yankee*, who cuts up his cabbage garden with rail-road tracks. He belongs to a nation of inveterate *smokers*, who live in some far-off Utopia, fight their battles by means of *proclamations*, and get up "pipe plots" to bring their obnoxious rulers to terms.

But that such is far from being the true character of the Dutch, who are even yet worthy of their Batavian ancestry, may be learned from but a partial perusal of their history in the glorious days of the republic.

Their great men then stand forth *proud* among the *great;* their wise men, pre-eminent among the wise.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE SUGAR INTERESTS.

The kindness with which my humble, yet I trust, in some cases, useful articles, have been published in the Review, as also the flattering comments of its Editor upon re-publishing my Texas correspondence from other journals, induce me to pen this, probably my last of upwards of one hundred letters upon the important subject of sugar. So much has been said by others, of various plans of revivification of old worn-out sugar lands, of the several modes of sugar manufacture, of the multiform machinery employed in sugar-houses, &c., that I have no remarks to make on these heads, nor do I intend to say anything pro or con respecting the numerous every-day theories, etc. Experiments and experience will determine all. Some may fail, as I myself have done, in some cases, during the last 13 years, principally devoted to experiments appertaining to my profession, whilst others will succeed and confer a boon on the sugar growers of Louisiana. I trust I may not be accused of egotism, when I say that I intend this letter to embrace all which I believe to be necessary to the well-doing of the sugar growers of Louisiana.

It must be apparent to every well informed planter, that his land requires renewing in some way or other, which can be easily effected in various ways. For instance, you can have all the kinds of land on your estate analyzed, and afterwards supply the deficiency. But probably the most direct and straight-forward way, and one which would suit all classes of sugar planters, would be, to adopt Professor Liebig's theory, and use in abundance, as they do in England, that manure which is known to be the food of what is intended to be raised.

Now, suppose this to be canes: then the dressing required is lime in some form or other, say a compost of lime and rotted bagasse, silex and marl, or what is perhaps better than all, a top dressing of from 8 to 12 bushels to the arpent, of phosphate of lime, in the form of crushed or pulverized bones. How very cheap; how easily procured; how simply pulverized and used; and above all, how agreeable to contemplate, is 500 hogsheads of sugar, instead of 300 hogsheads; at the same time, with the enhanced value of a plantation intrinsically. I am about to erect a steam bone-mill upon the English plan; it is very simple and cheap, and can be managed by plantation hands, and one of them can be attached to any sugar mill engine at small cost by any ordinary mechanic. Mine will be a long way out of the road, but in a bone district. Should any gentleman wish to erect one for himself, I shall be happy to give him any information by letter, should he write me upon the subject.

I will now proceed to a subject upon which I am equally, or perhaps rather more, at home.

It is now five years ago since I openly condemned the use of lime in sugar manufacture, giving chemical reasons for its discontinuance, and at a single view showing its injurious effects. I was then called a fool. How agreeable! However, I again denounced the lime—*First*, because some of the best crops have been made without it. *Second*, because several of its old adherents have given it up, and become cold-water converts. *Third*, because in addition to my numerous, previously promulgated chemical reasons, I give another, which in all probability will be the last I shall ever write, upon this all-important manufacture.

Take double steam refined sugar; dissolve it in pure water; boil and reboil it, and no change takes place—it remains limpid and inodorous. Add the smallest quantity of lime and it becomes colored, and emits a disagreeable smell. Upon cane juice this has still a more perceptible and destructive effect. I do not lay claim to infallibility, but I know I am not wrong in condemning the use of lime. As I before stated, I have made some failures, especially in making second products; but I have since succeeded to admiration—and I may ask, who has not had mishaps?

Without more ado, I will give your readers an account of my successful, cheap, simple, and effective apparatus for sugar making, which any person of ordinary perception will see at one view is calculated to supersede all other modes. It costs less than a common set of kettles, makes double the quantity of sugar in half the time, and with less than one-half the fuel; and, perhaps, not the least desideratum is, that a planter with 30 hands can cope with his neighbor who works 50 hands.

The modus operandi is a continuous, tortuous waste steam clarifier, several large settling cisterns, and a double flue pneumatical kettle.

The clarifier can be made and erected large enough for any sugar-house, for 100 dollars. Its name will indicate its shape, but I will minutely describe it: It is a continuation of the waste steam pipe from the heater, and leads into the trough which conveys the juice from the mill to the receivers. This trough is now made 4 feet wide, and is about 8 or 9 feet long. It is to be one foot deep; it is supplied with alternating slats or partial partitions of wood 3 feet long; these slats are so arranged as the first shall be attached on one side of the trough, the next to the other side, and so on to the number of 12; thus it will be seen, a zig-zag is made which causes the juice to have a travel of near 100 feet in a 9 foot trough. At the bottom of the box lies the tortuous copper pipe, its open end leading into the atmosphere, for the escape of condensed water, &c. At the end is a door 6 inches high, over which the juice has to fall, and which retains it sufficiently long to effect perfect clarification. Above this is another swinging door, 6 inches deep, which retains all the scum and fecula, and allows it to pass off mechanically. The juice will, in one minute after leaving the canes, be brought to 200° Fahrenheit. Thus you save fuel, accelerate sugar making—you are certain of having clear juice, and what is more, it will remain sweet over 24 hours; all this can be effected by the waste steam of any sugar mill engine, and have abundance of caloric to spare, even should you make 20 hogsheads of sugar daily.

The settling cisterns are a large number of receiving boxes, such as are now used in all sugar-houses—the juice leaves them as clear as sherry wine.

Now I will proceed to describe the ne plus ultra, "the double flue pneumatic kettle." This pan is very much like a common double flue steam boiler, such as are used on the river steamboats, with this exception, it is open at the top, &c. It is 22 feet long, 5 feet in depth, and seven feet in width. Its two flues, each 14 inches in diameter, pass through its entire length. It is provided with flue caps, caul and chimney. It can be set in one week by any bricklayer. When it is set up with a kneller tube and blowing apparatus, its cost will not exceed the cost of a set of common kettles. The bagasse, or one cord of wood to the hogshead of sugar, is ample. It will throw off four hogsheads of sugar every three hours, and as the strike is made by means of a cock, one hand is sufficient for its management. Some idea of difficulties may present themselves to your readers, such as caromelization, carbonation, &c. &c. I assure all such that nothing of the kind can occur. And what is more, the use of the pneumaticus causes it to evaporate fast, and to boil at 180° of Fahrenheit.

In the language of an enterprising and talented sugar planter, this process is bound to revolutionize the sugar manufacturing of Louisiana, as a large crop can be taken off in the same length of time by this plan, and with less outlay, and the same number of hands, that a small one can by the old kettle process, and with so much less wood. You need only run the apparatus at night, and have all the hands in the field during the day, except carrier hands and the engineer, who will be preparing the juice during the afternoon for the night's run. It will make regular sugar, and even fine sugar, from frosted canes. Any gentleman who cannot exactly comprehend this prosy epistle, has but to ask for further explanations, and they will be cheerfully given by yours, truly,

Wm. F. Wilkins,
Engineer and Sugar Maker.

Opelousas, 6th January, 1852.

2.—THE PREMIUM COTTONS—MACON FAIR.

It will be seen by the report of the proceedings at the great Agricultural Fair held in this city last week, that the exhibition of fine cottons was highly creditable. In addition to the premiums offered by the Association, it will be recollected that the Warehousemen and Cotton Brokers offered three splendid Silver Pitchers for the best specimen of lots of cotton, consisting of twenty bales, &c. The first prize, worth one hundred dollars, was awarded to Dr. William Terrell, of Hancock. The second prize, worth fifty dollars, was given to Samuel Dinkins, Esq., of Houston; and the third prize, worth thirty dollars, was awarded to Dr. Charles Thompson. of Macon. Dr. Terrell also obtained the first prize from the Association; Dr. Thompson the second, and Mr. Dinkins the third. Mr. Walker, of Pulaski, was awarded the first prize for the best lot of ten bales, &c.

These cottons, and, in fact, all those exhibited upon the grounds, were not only very superior in quality, but were so admirably handled, as to require the most careful scrutiny of the experienced gentlemen composing the committee, to enable them to arrive at a correct and satisfactory conclusion. Fifty bales of them, we understand, were promptly purchased by Messrs. Charles Day & Co., at ten cents, being an advance of several cents upon the ruling prices in the city. The purchasers propose to exhibit these cottons in Savannah and New-York, and will then ship them to Liverpool. Coming, as they will, from the centre of the great cotton region, and having received the highest premiums at the great Central Southern Exhibition, we have no doubt they will command very high prices on the other side of the water. They are at present all stored at the fire proof warehouse of Thomas Hardeman, Esq., where they will be allowed to remain for a few days. The samples can be seen at the counting-room of Messrs. Day & Co.

3.—FALSE PACKING OF COTTON.

We mentioned some time since that the Manchester Chamber of Commerce, and Commercial Association, and the American Chamber of Commerce of Liverpool, had appointed committees to draw up regulations relative to the return of falsely packed cotton. We perceive from the advices brought by the *Humboldt*, that the following rules in reference thereto have been adopted.

1. That cotton returned as falsely or irregularly packed, be paid for at the price which the cotton, if regularly packed, would be worth on the day on which it would be received back at Liverpool.

2. That no allowances for expenses to transmit beyond the limits of Great Britain, be made on returned cotton.

3. That all claims for falsely or irregularly packed cotton be accompanied by the declaration of the planter's mark or certificate. where there is any such mark; and, if required, the entire canvass in which the cotton was packed, to be returned.

A fourth proposal by the Liverpool Committee, to reduce the time within which cotton could be returned as falsely packed from twelve to six months, was rejected by the Manchester deputation.

4.—TARE ON SUGAR HOGSHEADS.

Some months ago the wholesale grocers of Cincinnati held a meeting, in which they remonstrated against the tare of 10 per cent. on sugar hogsheads, as altogether inadequate, and recommend instead, a tare of 12 per cent. In the recommendation, the grocers of New-Orleans concur. As this is a matter which involves the value of 5000 hogsheads of sugar at least to the State of Louisiana, and proposes to trench upon principles which are as old as the crop itself, it cannot be wondered at that planters are manifesting pointed and strong disapprobation. Among the resolutions which have been passed in the different parishes of the state by the planters, we extract the following, which are a fair specimen of the general tone and spirit. We trust that the Chamber of Commerce wil proceed advisedly in this matter, since it is likely they will be introduced as party.

"Whereas various experiments, recently made by members of this assembly, prove evidently that the conventional tare of 10 per cent., as actually established, far from falling short of the real tare of common sized hogsheads, exceeds it, on the contrary, by several pounds; whereas said tare causes to the sugar planter a loss which is still increased by the mode of weighing generally followed by brokers; and whereas the proposition made by merchants of Cincinnati and New-Orleans, to raise the said tare to 12 per cent., is not only unjust, but detrimental to the sugar industry of Louisiana; therefore,

Resolved, That the sugar planters of this parish are of the opinion, that the actual tare of 10 per cent. should be maintained, although it is far from being to their advantage, and that they protest most solemnly against any increase of said tare.

Resolved, That rather than submit to the exaction of the merchants of Cincinnati and New-Orleans, they would prefer acting as western dealers do with their produce, and tare their hogsheads themselves, in order to obtain thereby the real weight of each hogshead.

Resolved, That the present mode of weighing our molasses has caused us, for years past, a positive loss of at least half a pound per gallon, and that it would be more equitable that molasses, when weighed, should be sold by the pound, and not by the gallon.

Resolved, That the sugar planters of every parish in this state are hereby invited to meet together with the shortest delay, and protest against the resolutions passed at Cincinnati and New-Orleans by certain sugar dealers, setting the tare at 12 per cent.

5.—INDIA COTTON.

The question of an Indian supply of cotton has, for a long series of years, been discussed with no very great success. The fact appears to be, that the quantity obtained thence has been gradually on the decrease; but those years in which high prices prevailed, through short productions in the article, a stimulus was given to shipments from India, by diverting the cotton from the China market, and inducing greater cultivation. The import of India cotton into the United Kingdom, and the export price in the United States for corresponding years, were as follows:

	Import from India.	Average of prices in the United States.
1847	221,959	10¾
1848	227,572	7⅝
1849	182,079	6⅜
1850	70,838	11¼
1851	118,872	12⅛

The superior quality of United States cotton always enables it to command a higher price (at reduced rates) than the Indian commands; it affords material for all English yarns under twenty, and this may be taken as 50 per cent. of the manufacture. But whenever that price becomes exorbitant, a great stimulus is given to the consumption of the India articles, and a higher price never fails to bring out considerable quantities. The English official tables show the following receipts of cotton to the United Kingdom for two years.

IMPORT OF RAW COTTON INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

From	1850.	1851.	Decrease.	Increase.
United States	634,504,050	493,153,112	141,350,938	
India	70,838.515	118,872,742	——	43,034,227
West Indies	944,307	228,913	716,594	——
Egypt, &c	17,369,843	18,931,414	——	1,561,571
Brazil	30,738,133	30,229,982	508,151	——
Other places	1,074,164	2,090,698	——	1,016,534
Total lbs	755,469,012	663,576,861	142,585,683	50,612.332

The average export value of cotton in the United States, for 1849, was 6.4 cents, and for 1850, 11.3, a rise of 80 per cent. This drew from India 70 per cent. more than the usual supply; and the fact presented itself that, at an average of 11 cents, India can supply, at call, 25 per cent. as much cotton as the United States.

For many years the low prices of cotton have gradually discouraged the India production, but occasionally high prices impart a new stimulus to the cultivation in that region, and American cottons feel the reaction. The late accounts from France show that cotton of United States description may be raised very advantageously in the colony of Algiers.

In the United States, little or no India cotton is used; but the latter article, of southern growth, enters into all our cotton fabrics, and the proportion of the crop consumed in the United States, increases. Thus, assuming that consumption in the South and West, for the past five years, has been 350,000 bales, then the crops and United States consumption for two periods of five years, will be as follows:

	Crop—Bales.	U. S. Consumption Bales.
1841-'42	10,585,000	1,951,100
1847-'51	11,304 000	2.719,400
Total bales	719,000	768,300

Thus establishing the fact, that home consumption increases faster than the production, pointing to the speedy control of the value of the crop by the home market. This is more particularly the case, since the export of goods in rivalry with that of Great Britain is now so rapidly swelling in magnitude.

6.—THE DEAN COTTON.

The readers of the "News" will recollect an article on this new species of cotton, published some four or five months ago. In the sales of the past week we notice seven bales of this cotton at ten and a half cents. Upon inquiry of Mr. John Dean, (by whom this cotton was introduced four years ago with only ten seed,) we learn that it is now raised by some six or eight planters in this state. Mr. Dean himself has raised about fifty bales this year; and his brothers, Mr. Aylott Dean and Mr. Geo. Dean, have raised, the former about one hundred bales, and the latter fifty bales, all in Montgomery county, Texas. Mr. George Stonum, of Grimes county, has raised about one hundred and twenty-five bales this season. All who have tried this cotton, find it to possess such superior advantages, that they now plant no other. In July last, a letter from a merchant in Boston says this cotton was then worth eighteen cents a pound in that market. Mr. Dean sold the last of his present crop, which was of an inferior quality, in September, at thirteen and a half cents in the market at Boston. A sufficient trial has now been had of this cotton to determine its superiority beyond all doubt. It has been sold in Liverpool as well as in several markets of the United States, and has uniformly commanded a price of full thirty or thirty-five per cent. more than could be had for the ordinary cotton. Last year, when cotton commanded a higher price, sixty bales of this were sold in Boston for twenty-four cents a pound. A manufacturing house of Massachusetts, by whom this cotton has been thoroughly tested, has sent an agent to the state, who is now in the interior endeavoring to buy all he can find. The staple of this cotton is said to resemble that of Sea Island, and the fabric made of it is probably often mistaken for Sea Island. This cotton possesses the following advantages in addition to its superior quality: The product per acre is full as much or more; the bolls are larger, each boll having five divisions, while other cotton has but four; the quantity of cotton in each boll is more in proportion to its superior size; a hand can pick about one-third more of it in the same time. This last advantage is one of great importance, and has been fully established, as we learn, by fair experiment. This is owing to the larger amount of cotton to the boll, and to the greater length of the staple, making it quicker to be handled by the picker. There is a great demand for the seed of this cotton, which will probably supersede the ordinary kind throughout the state. Mr. Dean has now only a few sacks of the seed here for sale.

7—THE DATE TREE AT THE SOUTH.

This interesting tree is thus treated by a writer in the *Charleston Mercury*, whom we take to be Dr. Bachman, the distinguished naturalist:—

MESSRS. EDITORS:—The interesting communication from your correspondent, "G. P. E.," informing us of his success in producing fruit from the Date Tree, and your favorable notice of the only instance that has come to my knowledge of the ripening of this far-famed fruit in our state, together with your kindness in entrusting me with those specimens, induce me to offer a few additional items of information, which may assist those who are not Botanists. in unraveling the difficulties which have been presented in accounting for the production of the fruit in the absence of the staminate or male tree.

The Date Tree is admitted by all Botanists, I think, to be Diœcious, viz: the staminate or male flowers growing on one tree, and the pistillate or female flowers on another. When these are near each other at the time of flowering, and the season is favorable, perfect fruit is produced, and the seeds will germinate. When, however, there is only a pistillate or female tree, it will produce fruit that is equally palatable to the taste, but the seeds being not fertilized, will be barren. We are aware that our common poultry, and indeed all birds, as well as fishes, and even insects, will produce and lay eggs, although they have been entirely removed from their males. So also in fruits, of which our common fig affords a familiar instance. The various varieties of this delicious fruit have been produced by seeds in the warmer portions of the Eastern Continent. The female tree has only been imported; hence, although it produces luscious fruit, its seeds never germinate, and we have to resort to layers and cuttings to propagate the varieties.

If we admit these premises to be in accordance with nature, we may be able to arrive at a correct conclusion in reference to the peculiarities in the recent production of the fruit of the Date tree, which was sent to you by your correspondent. The tree was planted fifty years ago. and bore fruit in 1834, but being without a male could not have borne seeds that would have germinated—hence the young shoots that sprung up in the following spring could not have been produced from the seeds, but from the roots, as is the case with the Plantain, Banana, and other trees, or from the side, as in Indian corn.

Through the kindness of Henry W. De Saussure, Esq., I was favored with an opportunity during the month of May last, of examining for the first time the blossom of the Date tree. It was that of the male. and possessed three stamens, which places it in the class and order Diœcia triandria. It was composed of a single sheath of brilliant hue, and was to me one of the most interesting flowers I had ever examined. The Date is said by Botanists occasionally, but very rarely, to produce male as well as female blossoms on the same stem. This phenomenon is exhibited in a few other species of Diœcious plants—of which our Ailanthus glandulosa, or Tree of Heaven, as it is called in Europe, is a rare instance.

Our climate is, I fear, too cold for the successful propagation of the Date. In the southern parts of Florida, and in Texas near the Rio Grande, and especially in South California, it will most probably succeed much better than with us. A few trees have existed in the neighborhood of my residence for nearly forty years: they have, however, been cut off by frosts at long and irregular intervals, and have in no instance produced either fruit or blossoms. It is not impossible, although very difficult, to naturalize an intertropical fruit to a somewhat colder climate. This has to some extent been effected in the orange tree and sugar cane. In this case, however, it is necessary that the constitution of the plants be changed by the production of varieties from seeds that have come to maturity in these colder climates. Now, as your correspondent from Hilton Head has been so successful with one of the sexes, and my friend on Sullivan's Island with the other, it would be interesting if they could unite their stock, so that Carolina could boast of producing native Dates from native seeds. I presume you, or your correspondent, must have intended to indulge in a little pleasantry on New Year's day, when you induced us to speculate on the possibility of looking to Africa for the fertilizing dust to impregnate a Date tree on Hilton Head—or the equally improbable miracle that our noble Palmetto had sought an unnatural alliance with the Date.

8.—A SOUTHERN FARM—LOUISIANA.

The Troy plantation (H. W. Huntingdon's) has made this year, under the management of M. B. Hamilton, who worked only 36 hands, the large crop of 350 bales of cotton, already gathered; and 150 yet in the field to pick, and about 6000 bushels of corn. This tells well for our Black and Little River lands, when well managed. C. D.

People must not infer from the above that these 36 hands were either worked twelve and fourteen hours out of the twenty-four, like eastern operatives, or that they were confined to the cultivation of cotton and corn, to the neglect of everything else.

From our knowledge of Col. Huntingdon we will present a short sketch of his plantation operations, and leave it to our friends of the Advocate to say whether it be accurate or not. His negroes are well housed and well fed. They receive three full suits of well-made and substantial clothing a year, including a hat, a blanket, and often two pair of shoes. At night they have rousing log fires, and sleep on comfortable mattresses and bedsteads.

They receive 3½ or four lbs. mess pork or bacon, per week, a peck or more of finely-ground meal; besides, in their season, peas, potatoes, turnips, and greens in profusion. They get molasses very often, and milk almost every day—frequently flour, coffee and sugar; and the sick, the aged, and the young, are invariably doctored, nursed, and fed like members of the family. They go to work at daylight, stop an hour for breakfast, one hour in winter, and three in summer for dinner, and leave the fields at dark. They have nothing to do afterwards but to eat their suppers and go to sleep—no night work—no care for the morrow.

Half of every Saturday is allowed them to wash their clothes; for all are required to appear clean and tidy every Sunday morning. A piece of land, from half an acre to two acres, is allowed to each grown hand to grow corn and roots on private account; and they raise poultry *ad libitum*. These are either bought by the master, at market prices, or sold, by his permission, to the new settlers, or in the villages; and some of these negroes often realize thus $100, or more, every season.

The Sabbath is sacredly observed as a day of rest; and divine services are either performed on the premises by a colored preacher, or the slaves are allowed to attend the neighboring churches.

They have all the holydays—at Christmas a week, including New Year's day; and then, and once or twice besides during the year, a "big dinner," or festival, is given to all hands on the plantation. Visit their cabins on Sunday, and you will find every thing neat and clean—their tables set out, covered with a white cloth, and very often surrounded by visitors from the adjacent plantations, enjoying their coffee, bacon and eggs, fried chicken and batter cakes.

Col. Huntingdon's negroes never run away, and corporal punishments are rarely inflicted. All the abolitionists in the world could not persuade them to quit their old master or his family. He cultivates the domestic relations among them—encourages them to marry—registers the births of their children—and when they die, buries them with funeral ceremonies, he and his whole family following them to the grave.

The plantation is in apple-pie order. There are shelters for the stock, good fences, good fruit, plenty of vegetables, an abundant dairy, a table spread with delicacies, dispensed with a beautiful and graceful hospitality, and flowers and shrubbery throwing their fragrance over all.

Besides this, the Colonel has his hunter and his fisherman, his carpenter and blacksmith; and if you ask his worthy overseer, he will tell you that four or five of these thirty-six negroes were often taken from the field by the Colonel, very much to his annoyance, for some fancy operation, a boat-building job, or something of that sort; for the Colonel is a man of science, believes somewhat in book-farming, and always makes the heaviest crops when he leaves things generally to his overseer, especially if he be such a one as he has now got.

But enough of this. Our object is merely to show how happy our slaves are here—how prolific our soil is, and how rich the returns that await industry and skill, superintended by benevolence and kindness.—*N. O. Courier.*

9.—AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS OF THE UNITED STATES, 1850.

STATES.	Acres of land improved.	Value of farming implements and machinery.	Value of live stock.	Bushels of Wheat.	Bushels of Indian Corn.	Tobacco, pounds of.	Ginn'd cotton, bales of 400 lbs. each.	Wool, pounds of.	Wine, gallons of.	Butter, pounds of.	Cheese, pounds of.	Hay, tons of.	Hemp, dew-rotted, tons of.	Hemp, water-rotted, tons of.	Flaxseed, bushels of.	Maple Sugar, lbs. of	Cane Sugar, hhds. of 1,000 lbs.	Value of home made manufactures.
Maine	2,019,593	$2,363,517	$9,831,488	367.980	1,741,715	—	—	1,866,866	306	8,488,234	2,201,105	794,780	—	—	362	87,541	—	$510,998
New-Hampshire	2,251,388	8,314,125	8,871,901	185,658	1,573,670	50	—	1,108,476	335	6,977,056	3.196,563	598,854	—	—	94	1,294,429	—	393,455
Vermont	2,322,923	2,774,959	11,292,748	493,666	1,625,776	—	—	3,492,087	40	12,128,095	6,755,006	763,578	—	—	307	5,159,641	—	261,589
Massachusetts	2,127,924	3,173,809	9,619,964	29,784	2,326,167	119,306	—	576,736	4,122	7,825,338	7 124,461	645,749	5	—	72	768,596	—	210,076
Rhode Island	337,672	473,385	1,466,636	39	516,133	—	—	111,937	842	1,066,625	296,748	73,353	—	—	—	—	—	26,098
Connecticut	1,734,277	2,043,026	7,358,996	40,167	1,996,462	1,383,932	—	512,529	3,846	6,620,579	4,512,019	499,706	—	—	9,775	37,781	—	188,995
New-York	12,285,077	22,217,563	74,672,356	13,073,357	17,944,808	70,222	—	10,024,507	6,483	82,043,823	49,785,905	3,714,734	81	20	53,824	10,310,764	—	1,277,170
New-Jersey	1,770,337	4,267,124	10,678,264	1,508,216	8,605,396	—	—	375,932	517	9,070,710	500,819	429,119	—	—	12,353	5,886	—	110,350
Pennsylvania	8,619,631	14,931.993	42,146,711	15,482,191	19,707,702	857,619	—	4,764,368	23,839	40,554,741	2,395 279	1,826,265	173	686	43,627	2,218,844	—	755,104
Delaware	524,364	471,385	1,718,366	466,784	2,868,896	—	—	52,887	85	1,034,887	3,187	30,159	—	16	838	—	—	32,809
Maryland	2,797,905	2,463,443	1,997,634	4,494,680	11,104 631	21,199,281	—	477,438	2,099	4,286,160	3,925	145,070	63	—	2,816	47,740	—	111,808
District of Columbia	17,083	40,220	71,573	17,370	65,280	15,000	—	—	863	14,889	—	1,974	—	—	—	—	—	75
Virginia	10,150,106	7,021,658	33,607,362	14,516,950	35,538,582	66,516,492	2,767	2,850,909	4,280	11,126,785	434,850	370,177	3,450	1,149	53,333	1,223,905	—	2,156,073
North Carolina	5,443,137	4,056,006	17,837.168	2,147,899	28,286,999	12,058.147	98,028	915,289	10,801	4,144,258	95,043	145,180	13	478	38,183	27,448	½	2,008,884
South Carolina	4,074,855	4,143.709	15,060,015	1,060,278	16,272,308	73,235	300,901	487,243	3,680	2,979,975	4,810	25,427	—	—	11	200	150	909,546
Georgia	6,323,426	5,901,050	25,727,408	1,635,784	30,428,540	420,123	494,023	989,802	664	4,640,074	46,391	23,427	—	—	585	50	1,273	1,888,093
Florida	349,423	675,885	2,945,668	1,225	1,993,462	982,584	45,078	29,235	10	375,853	18,324	2,620	—	—	—	—	47,411	74,362
Alabama	4,387,088	5,066,814	31,558,686	292,429	28,485,966	163,605	560,360	637,829	14	3,961,592	30,423	31,801	—	70	54	473	28	1,890,258
Mississippi	3,489,640	5,759,734	19,303.593	215,181	21,836,154	48.349	4,94,774	556,057	301	4,388,112	20,316	12,517	2	—	21	110	278	1,165,195
Louisiana	1,567,998	11,326,310	10,983,508	84	10,915,051	23,922	163,034	105,393	—	635,136	1,148	20,672	—	—	—	260	262,486	138,773
Texas	635,913	2,095,308	10,263,086	42,448	5,796,735	60,770	55,945	122,118	94	2,319,574	92,018	8,327	—	—	16	—	7,017	265,526
Arkansas	780,333	1,594,941	6,722,254	196,902	8,857.296	224,164	64,987	181,427	10	1,854,104	28,440	3,924	—	145	691	8,825	—	644,928
Tennessee	5,087,057	5,351.178	29.134,193	1,638,470	52,137,863	20,144,380	192,635	1,340,833	204	8,130,636	179,577	72,942	405	585	19,405	159,647	—	3,163,116
Kentucky	6,068,633	5,388,092	29.898,386	2,184,763	58,922,783	55,765,259	1,660	2,246,168	4,202	10,115,267	228,744	115,296	37,168	2,685	80,458	388,525	—	2,487,493
Ohio	9,730,650	12,716.153	43,276,187	14,967,056	59,788,750	10,480,967	—	10,089,607	44,834	34,180,458	21,350,478	1,360.636	628	454	185,598	4,521,643	—	1,696,601
Michigan	1,923,582	2,764,171	8,005,429	4,918,706	5,620,215	2,225	—	2,047,364	1,443	7,043,794	1,012,551	394,717	40	14	1,186	2,423,897	—	355,936
Indiana	5,019,822	6,748,722	22,398,965	6,625,474	52,887,564	1,035,146	5	2,502,763	13,004	12,748,186	666,986	402,791	794	775	35,803	2,921,638	—	1,647,200
Illinois	5,114,041	6,349,826	24,817,954	9,433,965	57,179,283	844.129	8	2,129.139	2,343	12,605.554	1,283,758	586,011	1,099	1,828	11,873	246,078	—	1,218.211
Missouri	2,911,422	3,977,449	19,764,672	2,943 840	35,709,042	17,038,364	—	1,635,182	10,193	7,762,124	201.597	116,284	17,061	4,014	13,439	171,943	—	1,662,749
Iowa	814,173	1,202,978	3,602,769	1,442.074	8,475,027	2,012	—	363,398	420	1,833,128	198,444	84,596	1,200	80	2,182	70,680	—	202,533
Wisconsin	1,011.308	1,701,047	4,594,717	4,292,208	1,983,378	763	—	243,065	68	888,816	440.961	295,227	—	100	834	661,960	—	57,506
California	34,312	88,593	3,456,725	98,282	90,082	1,000	—	4,800	—	705	150	2,038	—	—	—	—	—	2,500
Minnesota	5,035	15,981	103,859	3,422	16.665	—	—	260	—	1,100	—	2,069	—	—	—	1,950	—	—
Oregon	135,357	183,403	1,875,989	228,882	2,928	325	—	29,596	—	211,734	30,030	373	—	—	—	—	—	—
Utah	15,219	78,495	533,951	103,441	9,144	—	—	8,897	—	74,064	32,646	4,288	—	—	—	—	—	1,304
New-Mexico	261,296	78,217	1,504,497	196,575	355,795	1,118	—	32,641	2,053	101	5,887	—	—	—	—	—	—	6,031
Total	112,042,000	151,820,273	552,705,238	104,799,230	591,586,053	199,532,494	2,474,214	52,422,797	141,295	312,202,286	103,184,585	13,605,384	62,182	13,059	567,749	32,759,263	318,644	27,525,545

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x 4,221,420

10.—SUGAR TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

Imports, Exports, Stocks, and Estimated Consumption, of Raw, Clayed, &c., for the year ending December 31, 1851, *exclusive of California and Oregon.*

NEW-YORK.	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bbls.	Boxes.	Bags.	Cas.	Value, Jan. 1, 1852.	1851.
Received from Cuba	94070	1548	5079	188387	813	—	* 4 a 6	*4½a6¾
" " Porto Rico	29373	64	2020	—	—	—	† 4½ a 7	†5¼a8¼
" " St. Croix	1236	—	38	—	—	—	3¾ a 5½	5¾a6¾
" " Brazil	—	—	565	—	43791	303	5½ a 6¼	—
" " Manilla	—	—	—	—	108257	—	4 a 6	—
" " Surinam	817	3	133	—	—	—	4½ a 4¾	—
" " Nassau, N. P	136	23	103	—	—	—	—	—
" " Halifax	—	—	—	—	2090	—	—	—
" " St. John, N. B.	69	—	17	—	—	—	—	—
" " Other for'n ports	317	10	302	24	—	—	—	—
Total receipts of foreign	126019	1648	8257	188411	154954	303	—	—
Received from Texas	1576	—	235	102	—	—	—	—
" " Louisiana	15945	45	326	—	—	—	3½ a 5½	5¼a6¾
" " Other coastwise	3758	13	35920	3384	13733	—	—	
Total supply	147397	1706	44738	191897	168687	303		
Exp'd 712 hds., ship'd to Ca'da 217	929	81	20	3091	—	—		
	146369	1625	44718	188806	168687	303		
Add stock, January 1, 1851	1601	—	—	8835	3798	—		
Total supply	147970	1625	44718	197641	172485	303		
Deduct stock, January 1, 1852	7582	—	—	13512	26105	303		
Taken for cons'ption from this port	140388	1625	44718	184129	146380	..		

* Muscovado.
† Box.

Or, about 132,832 tons—of which foreign, imported direct, 120,599. Same time last year, 104,071 tons—of which foreign, imported direct, 65,089 tons.

Received at New-York, from foreign and coastwise ports, from 1st January to 31st December.						*Stock in New-York, 1st January.*			
	Hhds.	Tierces.	Barrels.	Boxes.	Bags.		Hhds.	Boxes.	Bags.
1851	147298	1706	44738	191897	168687	1852	7582	13512	26105
1850	116848	1311	35019	132814	61260	1851	1601	8835	3798
1849	128417	1404	21105	63057	93938	1850	3213	1699	24666
1848	108703	2258	19946	120354	90088	1849	4549	14127	....
1847	87861	779	17765	144898	24255	1848	2262	2500	....
1846	67238	577	7242	85744	37652	1847	1279	—	3817
1845	88268	1626	17039	22958	38771	1846	1297	....	—
1844	62881	513	11075	106918	35689	....	......	....	....
1843	59003	331	9896	50549	38417	....	......	....	....
1842	54495	75	13048	58012	60553	....	......	....	....

Most of the barrels received here from coastwise ports is refined sugar.

Receipts of Foreign, from 1st January, 1851, *to 31st December*, 1851.

	Hds. & tcs.	Bbls.	Boxes.	Bags.	Cases.
At New-York	127667	8257	188411	154954	303
Boston	11571	1223	82906	88126	—
Philadelphia	27648	5084	34971	53907	—
Baltimore	17044	2542	3597	8310	—
New-Orleans	350	—	28619	—	1683
Other ports	6168	321	11071	5320	—
Total Receipts in the United States	190448	17427	349575	310617	1986
Add Stock at all the ports, January 1, 1851	3525	—	20261	7102	—
Total supply	193973	17427	369836	317719	1986
Deduct Export from all the ports, in 1851	2951	2904	6542	1344	—
	194022	14523	363294	316375	1986
Deduct Stock at all the ports, January 1, 1852	9367	—	31446	27425	303
Total consumption of foreign	181655	14523	331848	288950	1683

Or, about		tons..201405
Add crop of 1850–'51, Louisiana, Texas, &c., the bulk of which came to market in 1851, and assuming the stock 1st January each year to be equal		120331
Would make the total consumption in the United States, from January 1, 1851, to December 31, 1851		321736
Consumption of foreign in 1850	160210	
Add crop of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, &c., 1849–'50	141592	
Would make the total consumption		301802
Excess in 1851		19934

STOCK 1ST JANUARY.

PORTS.	1852. Hhds.	1852. Boxes.	1852. Bags.	1852. Cases.	1851. Hhds.	1851. Boxes.	1851. Bags.
At New-York	6141	13512	26105	303	1213	8835	3798
Boston	774	10013	—	—	400	7514	3054
Philadelphia	1852	7541	1320	—	1287	2900	250
Baltimore	250	—	—	—	600	—	—
N. Orleans	—	—	—	—	—	700	—
Other ports	350	400	—	—	425	312	—
Total stock	9367	31466	27425	303	3525	20261	7102

The stock of all kinds at this port, 1st January, 1852, was 8,728 tons, against 2,917 tons last year; and the stock of foreign at all the ports, 1st January, 1852, was 13,659 tons against 6,522 tons, 1st January, 1851.

The above statement we believe to be a correct exhibit of the quantity of raw, clayed, &c., sugar, taken from the ports, for consumption in the country. It will be observed, we do not include the receipts of European refined sugar, being unable to obtain any reliable data for them, and we do not embrace in our exports any foreign or domestic refined sugar, having confined ourselves wholly to the descriptions noticed. The quantity of sugar made here from molasses is large, and the production of the maple tree the last season is estimated at 17,500 tons.

For the following interesting statistics relative to the production of sugar in this country from the cane and from the maple tree, taken from the United States Marshal's returns of the Seventh Census, for the year ending June 1, 1850, we are indebted to Joseph C. G. Kennedy, Esq., Superintendent of Census, Washington, D. C.

	Cane Sugar, Hhds.	*Maple Sugar, Lbs.*		*Cane Sugar, Hhds.*	*Maple Sugar, Lbs.*
Maine	—	87541	Mississippi	278½	110
Missouri	—	171943	Texas	7017	—
Maryland	—	47740	Arkansas	—	8825
Alabama	28	473	Tennessee	—	159888
New-Hampshire	—	1292429	Ohio	—	4521643
Vermont	—	5159641	Michigan	—	2423897
Massachusetts	—	768596	Indiana	—	2921638
Connecticut	—	37781	Illinois	—	246078
New-York	—	10310764	Iowa	—	31040
New-Jersey	—	5886	Louisiana	262486	—
Pennsylvania	—	3178373	Kentucky	—	386233
Virginia	—	1223905	Wisconsin	—	661969
North Carolina	—½	27448	Minnesota Ter'ry	—	2950
South Carolina	150	200			
Georgia	1273	50	Total	272974	33677041
Florida	1741½	—			

11—THE RICE PLANT.

In answer to various inquiries made to us upon the subject of rice, we publish the following letter from Col. Allston, an able rice planter of South Carolina, to whom we had written upon the subject.

Charleston, 21*st Jan.*, 1852.

DEAR SIR,—By the mail which conveys this, I transmit you a copy of Col. J. J. Ward's report on the cultivation of the rice crop, from which your correspondent, whose name has escaped me, (his letter being misplaced in Columbia,) may derive some notions useful to him in his prosposed essay at rice-planting.

I have no experience of "inland planting" myself. In the desire to serve your friend, I applied to several gentlemen, habitually cultivating inland swamp for the systems practised by them respectively. I have to regret that none of them, as yet, have found it convenient, or thought proper, to favor me, by keeping to their promises.

Information is seldom obtained from the planters in any other way than by conversation. I desired to be more accurate by furnishing their own statements; but as the season is advancing, I will not longer withhold the impression as to their mode of culture, made on my mind by their several verbal communications.

It is chiefly this, that they all approach as near, and practice as closely, as circumstances will permit, the systems most approved among the planters on Tidewater swamp.

Where the water flows or ebbs, and there is consequently a command of water, the system is such in the main, as described in my memoir,* and also recently and in detail, by my friend, Col. Ward, in the report I send you.

As your correspondent will not have the benefit of such command of water, but must use it, I presume, from a "reserve," I will venture to indicate what would be my own course under similar circumstances.

I should select new land, as it is free from grass, and grass is the greatest enemy to rice in inland swamp; water is the only means by which it can be effectually subdued year by year, and the inland planter has not the necessary command of water.

After clearing the land, as well as one would for any other crop—or in case of land already cleared, after plowing it up early for the frost to act upon it, and draining it well, with drains (18 inches by 3 feet) 75 feet apart; then, when about to plant, leveling the surface with the barrow and the hoe, I would trench it with a very narrow hoe, placing the trenches at the distance of 12 inches one from the other, and sow the rice, carefully, in a "string," i. e., as thin (but regular) as possible; cover it as other seed, and if it be not likely to have rain upon it in a day or two, I would flow it just to cover the land for six days; but if rain be plenty, I would not flow until the plant is seen, here and there, generally coming through the earth; (this, in fine weather, will be seen in 12 to 15 days;) the birds will then be very troublesome, if uncovered with water, destroying a great deal. The land should then be covered with water ("point flow") 6 inches deep, if old land. In case of new land, where there is no grass, I would flow only deep enough to cover the rice from birds at first, then gradually as the plant grew stronger and taller, raise the water up to 6 inches generally: In case the planter is not certain of having water enough to keep a flow of 40 days (to help kill the young grass) and hold on until the plant, which will be stretched and weakened by it, is strong enough to stand up. When the water shall be drawn off (it will be so in *April* in 40 days, in *May* some 30 to 35), I would then send in hands and pick out all the long grass which may be observed *in the trenches* with the rice plants; (these the hoe cannot reach, and they will only come up by the root when the earth is soft with water;) then draw the water off gradually. The plant is then putting out new roots. Whilst they are still short, and as soon as the land is dry, say in 8 days, hoe it deep with hoes not wider than 4½ inches, (4 is better,) the new roots will easily penetrate the broken soil, and the plants will flourish. In 20 to 16 days more, hoe it again, but very light, so as to level the uneven surface and to cut every spear of grass, picking out by hand what the hoe cannot reach. Thus effectually cleaned, the rice may be "laid by" in 2 or 3 days; it will then be "jointing," or nearly so. The water should now (after at least 30 days of dry growth for April rice) be put on again full six inches, until the head shoots out; then it may be raised higher with impunity, and will be a stay to the tall plant in times of heavy wind. When the plant is in bloom, it should, by no means, be disturbed for any purpose.

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* Published in Vol. 1 of the Review.

In 60 days after jointing, the grain is generally ripe for the sickle—the weather or season may have the effect to retard or advance it a day or two: the water should then be drawn off, and the reapers set to work. In Carolina, the sickle, or "reap hook," is used, with which each hand will cut a half acre in the day, then tie in sheaves, and stock in the field what was cut the day before.

The task with us is to cut ½ of an acre early in the morning; then, when the dew is off, tie and carry to the barn-yard the ½ of an acre which was cut the day before, supposing the sun to have been shining duly.

I think that in inland it would be better also to give the like task, especially the first year, viz: cut ½ an acre, tie, ("bind") and carry ½, or stock it in the field, if dry, so as to get done handling the rice before the night dews wet it.

The threshing out is laborious; this, as well as the pounding or cleaning, is done here by machinery, some account of which may be found in my memoir, and, also, in the pamphlet already referred to. This machinery is expensive—the first will cost from $3000 to $7000—the other, from $10,000 to $18,000. The machinists here could furnish particulars.

In the hope your friend may derive advantage from these hints, which I am aware, are imperfect,

I am, very respectfully,
Robt. F. W. Allston.

N. B.—From the "point flow," he will be good enough to pursue, as nearly as he can, the method described by J. J. Ward, in his report from where it is marked, taking care to substitute a 5 inch hoe for his "six inch."

12.—REPORT ON RICE CULTURE.

Your Committee beg leave to report, what in their opinion, is the best mode of cultivating rice.

It is scarcely necessary to observe that the land should be in good order; that is, that the banks and trunks should be in such condition as to keep the water within or without the fields, as circumstances may render necessary; the drains ought to be thirty-seven and a half feet apart, and at least three feet deep and eighteen inches wide; the size of the fields to be determined to a great extent by the force employed; with a strong force they can be of much larger dimensions than with a smaller, It is evidently important that every part of the field should be as nearly as possible in the same condition, as regards hoeing, &c., when the water is put on: otherwise, from the different state *of the plant*, one portion would require different treatment from another, which of course is impossible. Perhaps inattention in this respect has produced more mischief than might at first sight appear. During the winter the land ought to be well turned, either by the plow or hoe. As planting time approaches, the land should be well mashed and *laid off* in *bold* trenches, with a four inch "trenching hoe," thirteen inches from centre to centre; the seed is to be carefully sowed at the rate of from two and a half to three bushels the acre, according to the order the land may be in; the greater quantity to be used when it is not in the best state of preparation. There are different opinions on the subject of covering the seed; on low and gummy lands, the "open planting" is the best; but when the soil is well prepared, a careful covering is to be preferred. The sprout water is then put on, and remains until the grain "pips," which will take place according to the weather, &c., in from three to six days; the water is then taken off, and the land kept as dry as possible, until you can see the rice the whole length of a row across the bed, coming out in fine spires, which is frequently called the "needle state;" the point flow is then put on and retained from three to nine days, or as long as it can be kept on without weakening the plant so much as to cause it to fall when the water is taken from it. This is especially important, as the grass being young is more effectually destroyed than at any later stage of the crop. As soon as the rice is strong enough, which will depend on circumstances,, a light hoeing should be given it, with a six inch "rice hoe." About twelve days after this first hoeing, it should be well stirred with the "six inch hoe" again, and allow two or three days (should the weather be dry) for the sun to kill the grass disturbed by the hoe. "The long water" is then put on, and the rice to be overtopped for three or four days; the trash which will float up must be carefully raked on the banks. By this deep flow not only is the trash removed, but the insects with which the rice is infested, are for the time completely destroyed. The water is then gradually slackened to about six inches deep on the general level. A notch must be made on the trunk or elsewhere, and the water kept as near the same level as can be, for from twelve to twenty-three days, according to the quality of the land; the heavy land requiring the longest water; (the water, however, should not be taken off on the fifteenth day, as from the state of the plant at that time it is apt to "fox.") The water is then to be gradually slackened off, to prevent the rice from falling in the low parts of the field, it being weak from the greater depth of the water; and this points out the great importance of bringing the surface of every field as nearly as may be to a level, as in the lower spots the rice is often materially injured, and in the high places the grass is not destroyed. When the water is off the surface, the trunks are to be thrown open, and the land again kept as dry as possible. During this flow, or rather about the time of slacking off, as what grass may have escaped the hoe will have grown rapidly, it is advisable to "turn" the hands in and pull it out. As soon as the land is sufficiently dry, it is to be *dug* as *deep* as practicable, with a four inch rice hoe, to enable the roots of the plant *to spread* with greater facility. In about twenty-two days after the "long water," the fourth and last hoeing should be given with a four inch hoe, and should be very light, merely to level the clods left from the digging and to destroy the young grass; particular care being taken not to injure or disturb the roots of the plant. A day or two after this hoeing, the "lay by" water should be put on, about the same depth, or perhaps a little deeper than the "long water" notch; lower or higher according to the growth of the rice. Care should be taken that when the rice begins to round, that the water should not get over the fork. It is to be noticed that as soon as the weaker portions of the rice gains sufficient strength, the water is to be run through the field every "tide," which should be regularly attended to until the crop is ready for the hook. When circumstances require or will admit of the "open planting," the seed ought to be well clayed before sowing. The water is then put gradually on, and kept on, until the rice is in the "green fork;" it is then dried for three days to allow the plant to take root, and then again flowed; the further treatment being the same as before stated for the "covered planting."

Respectfully, JOSHUA JOHN WARD, Chairman.

13.—BEST MODE OF CURING AND MILLING RICE.

To the President of the Winyah and All-Saints Agricultural Society.

The Committee to whom was referred the consideration of the "best mode of curing and milling rice," beg leave to report:

That almost every plantation has its own particular method of curing rice; so in almost every mill will be found something peculiar in the preparation and cleaning of rice. We may with reason suggest that the market is the true test of the best mode. The rice may be pronounced best cured and best milled, which makes the fairest show and commands the most attention in the market. To produce such rice, however, something more is requisite than curing and milling. The previous winter work should have been well placed on the soil. The whole system of planting must have been good. The seed should have been well selected, free from red-rice, and a full thin-skin grain; it should have been sown regular, and not too thick; then it should have been carefully cultivated, regarding the use of both the hoe and water. To all this, industry and attention are requisite. The attentive and observant planter who keeps a journal, will soon be taught by experience the best method. He will see that it is a mistake to suppose, that because rice is an aquatic plant, it will flourish in land which is kept in a sobbed state; but on the contrary, that unless the land be well flowed, it should be well drained,

It is true that some of the best samples of rice are often produced from old lands, which yield no more than 25 and 30 bushels to the acre. But as it is the desire of every one engaged in planting to increase the quantity as well as to improve the quality of his crop, it is taken for granted that the previous preparation of the soil has been duly attended to, (the last and least object of which is the surface,) and that the culture has been good throughout the season.

Curing.—The field then is to be dried some two or three days before the grains be *fully* ripe, and the rice cut forthwith. laying it, of an even thickness, on the stubble, the heads being clear of any water.

If the weather be fair, one day's sun is sufficient. Accordingly, after the dew is off, on the day after the rice is cut, it should be tied into sheaves and borne to the barn yard, and there stacked before the dew falls again, in ricks about seven feet wide, twenty feet long, and built up as high as a man can pile from a stool two feet high. Here it undergoes a heat which is supposed to mature and harden the grain, If, however, this process be not duly noticed; if the heat be too great and continue too long, (as it may, depending on the condition of the rice, and state of the weather,) the rice is said to be "mow-burned," and is injured. The greatest heat to which the grain can be subjected without injury, is deemed advisable. The rice will keep well enough in the ricks herein described, until threshed, but it is often transferred to large stacks after the harvest, for safe-keeping—stacks from 12 to 16 feet in diameter.

Milling.—After having been thrashed, the rice should be rayed, i. e. the broken and imperfect grains separated from the full, the small and lighter from the large, &c.; so that the parcel of rice to be milled be made up of grains as nearly equal in length as practicable. The grinding is believed to be the most important part of the process; it is between the stones that the rice is most apt to break. Each grain revolving probably on its shortest axis, according with a well-tested principle of philosophy, the stones should be set in regard to their length.

From these stones, with every hull, if possible, broken, if not shelled off, the rice passes under the pestle. The proper degree of pounding can only be ascertained by the inspection of a practised eye. On being discharged from the mortar, the rice must be thoroughly separated by rolling screens and fans from the flour and broken grains. It then should be passed spirally, through the brushing screen, which revolves with great rapidity, (the longer the screen the better, provided the velocity be not diminished,) until it is delivered into the barrel, clean, bright and pearly, fully "prepared" and ready for market.

This whole process, which, in the main, must be known to every planter of any experience, is thus familiarly described; and, at the request of the Society, is herewith submitted, by R. F. W. ALLSTON, Chairman.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—COMMERCIAL DEPENDENCE OF THE SOUTH ON THE NORTH.

THERE is, probably, no country on the face of the earth, possessing more natural advantages for a large and extensive commerce, than the South—and yet, we have allowed those advantages to remain unimproved, and the immense profits to be derived therefrom, to be reaped by our more active and enterprising neighbors of the North. We produce the main supply of cotton for the world—the great artery through which the life-blood of commerce flows—besides which, rice, sugar, hemp, and many other articles out of which a commerce should arise, that would enrich every seaport at the South, and almost pave their streets with gold. Yet, how is it, that with all these vast resources for commerce within our grasp, our energies should so long have remained dormant, and our commercial cities mere depots for Northern enterprise. Tariffs may have had their influence, government legislation may have had some effect, but the main difficulty has been in our own supineness and lack of energy. Our merchants have been content, instead of boldly embarking in the field of commercial enterprise themselves, to be the factors or agents for Northern merchants. The enterprise of

Northern merchants penetrates every clime—their ships are found in the Polar seas, in the vast Pacific, on the broad Atlantic. They come back to our shores laden with rich stores from all quarters of the globe; silks and teas of China, coffee from Brazil, the manufactures of England, France, the spice of Sumatra, the gold of California; for almost every article of necessity and luxury we use from foreign countries, we are indebted to Northern enterprise, to which we annually pay a large tribute, the immense profits of which might accrue to ourselves, had we the enterprise and energy to enter the field. Will any man of sense pretend to say, that there is any action of the general government to prevent a merchant of Charleston, Savannah, or New-Orleans, from fitting out ships for the whaling business, importing teas from Canton, or coffee from Brazil? Are the duties on foreign goods any higher in Charleston than in New-York? Look at our foreign dry goods trade. Freights to Charleston are lower in Liverpool than to New-York. Exchange on Europe can be had at a lower rate in Charleston than New-York. No one will pretend to say that a New-York merchant's money will buy more goods in Manchester and Birmingham than a Charleston merchant's. Yet, how is it, that of the vast amount of foreign goods sold in Charleston, so few are imported direct? How is it, that annually our jobbers go to the North and buy their stocks of Northern importers? They cannot be so verdant as to suppose that these importers sell their goods without a profit. There has been no effort made to secure this trade. We have not, in Charleston, a single commission merchant for the sale of foreign dry goods. We have none to point out to the English, French, and German manufacturer, the advantages he might gain by shipping his surplus stocks to our market. We will venture to say, if houses with capital, knowledge of the business, and energy of character, would enter into this branch of business alone, they would reap a rich harvest. The trade of Charleston alone would support twenty such houses. Why is it that so large a portion of our country merchants seek their supplies in the Northern markets? It is because they know our jobbers buy their goods there, and they think they are paying two sets of profits.

One of the most certain laws of trade is, that men will buy where they can buy the cheapest; and as long as we allow Northern enterprise to monopolize the importing business of the country, so long will Southern merchants forsake their own seaports, and swarm in flocks annually, to make their purchases at the North. In the leading article of coffee, it is estimated, that 40 to 50,000 bags are annually sold in Charleston, and yet of this a very large portion is imported *via* the North. We are glad to say, within a few years past, public attention has some evidences that the dormant spirit of our merchants is awakening to their true interest. Our direct importations of foreign dry goods, hardware and crockery, are increasing, our West India business supplies the market fully with sugar and molasses. It is not an uncommon thing to see a cargo of Rio coffee imported direct, and we even hear of a cargo of gunny cloth on the way from Calcutta. This is but a small beginning. Much more remains to be done. Southern merchants must arouse themselves. Capitalists must come forward and help the cause. They must circulate their wealthy hoards, giving life and animation to trade, and reaping rich returns for themselves. They must not be content with locking up their means in bank and state stocks, for five and six per cent. interest. Such investments will do for old women and minor children. *Men* should always strive and work, It is this which gives life and impulse to mercantile enterprise at the North. Our merchants, if successful enough to make $50,000 or $100,000, retire from business, and invest their money in stocks or in *a plantation*. Where we leave off they begin. A merchant in New-York, when he has made $100,000 or $200,000, thinks he has just got capital enough to begin to do business. His ideas expand; he is no longer content with little things; he surveys the whole field of enterprise; he enters into competition with the great merchants of the world, and becomes a merchant prince. Large enterprises require large means, and by such alone can be achieved. Let us shake off our sluggish indifference, and awake to the splendid results which await us, if we have but the energy and the will to grapple for the rich prize within our reach. Let our merchants be no longer content to be mere *peddlers*, but become *merchants* in *deed* as well as in *name*.—*Southern Standard.*

2.—UNITED STATES TONNAGE.

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES—TONNAGE, &C., OF THE COUNTRY.

Statement, exhibiting the tonnage of the United States for a series of years; also, showing the comparative increase since the year 1815; and the proportion engaged in the foreign, whaling and coasting trade:

YEARS.	Registered tonnage.	Enroll'd & licensed tonnage.	Total tonnage.
1815	854294 76	513833 04	1368127 78
1838	822951 86	1173047 89	1995639 80
1839	834244 54	1262234 27	2096478 81
1840	899764 74	1280999 35	2180764 16
1841	845803 42	1184940 90	2130744 37
1842	975358 74	1117031 90	2090390 69
1843	1009305 01	1149297 62	2158601 93
1844	1068764 91	1211330 11	2280695 07
1845	1095172 44	1321829 57	2417002 06
1846	1131286 49	1431798 32	2562084 81
1847	1241312 92	1597732 80	2839045 77
1848	1360886 85	1793155 00	3154041 85
1849	1438941 53	1895073 71	3334015 29
1850	1585711 22	1949743 01	3535454 23
1851	1726307 23	2036132 20	3772439 43

Proportion of the Enrolled and Licensed Tonnage employed in the

YEARS.	Regist'd tonnage in whale fishery.	Coasting trade.	Cod fishery.	Mack'l fishery.	Whale fishery.
1815	—	435066 87	26370 33	—	1229 92
1838	119629 89	1041105 18	70064 60	56649 16	5229 55
1839	131845 25	1153551 80	72258 68	35983 87	439 69
1840	136726 64	1176694 46	76035 65	26269 19	—
1841	157405 17	1107067 88	66551 84	11321 13	—
1842	151612 74	1045753 39	54804 02	16096 83	377 31
1843	152374 89	1076155 59	61224 25	11775 70	142 33
1844	168293 63	1109614 44	85224 77	16170 66	320 14
1845	190695 65	1190898 27	69825 66	21413 16	206 92
1846	186980 16	1289870 89	72516 17	36463 16	439 58
1847	193858 72	1452623 35	70177 52	31451 13	—
1848	192176 90	1620988 16	82651 82	43558 78	432 75
1849	180186 29	1730410 84	42970 19	73853 78	—
1850	146916 71	1755796 32	85646 30	58111 94	—
1851	184644 52	1896401 40	87475 89	59539 01	—

3.—EXPORTS OF BREADSTUFFS, &c., U. S.

Table, exhibiting the aggregate value of Breadstuffs and Provisions, exported annually, from 1821 to 1851, inclusive:

	Value.
Year ending Sept. 30, 1821	$12,341,901
" " 1822	13,886,856
" " 1823	13,767,817
" " 1824	15,059,484
" " 1825	11,634,449
" " 1826	11,302,496
" " 1827	11,685,556
" " 1828	11,461,144
" " 1829	13,134,858
" " 1830	12,075,430
" " 1831	17,538,227
" " 1832	12,424,703
" " 1833	14,209,128
" " 1834	11,524,024
" " 1835	12,009,399
" " 1836	10,614,130
" " 1837	9,588,359
Year ending Sept. 30, 1838	$9,636,650
" " 1839	14,147,779
" " 1840	19.067,535
" " 1841	17,196,102
" " 1842	16,902,876
9 mos., end'g June 30, 1843	11,204,123
Year ending June 30, 1844	17,970,135
" " 1845	16,743,420
" " 1846	37,701,121
" " 1847	68,701,921
" " 1848	37,472,751
" " 1849	38,155,507
" " 1850	26,051,373
" " 1851	24,119,293
Total.	$559,326,578

4.—VESSELS BUILT IN THE UNITED STATES.

Statement, showing the number and class of Vessels built in the United States since the year 1815:

YEARS.	Ships.	Brigs.	Schooners.	Sloops and canal boats.	Steamers.	Total No. of vessels.	Total tonnage.	95ths.
1815	136	224	680	274	—	1314	154624	39
1816	76	122	781	424	—	1408	131668	04
1817	34	86	559	394	—	1073	86393	37
1818	53	85	428	332	—	898	82421	20
1819	53	82	473	242	—	850	79817	86
1820	21	60	301	152	—	534	47784	01
1821	43	89	248	127	—	507	55856	01
1822	64	131	260	168	—	623	75346	93
1823	55	127	260	165	15	622	75007	57
1824	56	156	377	166	27	781	90936	00
1825	56	197	538	168	35	994	114997	25
1826	71	186	482	227	45	1012	126439	35
1827	58	133	464	241	38	934	104342	67
1828	73	108	474	196	33	884	98375	58
1829	44	68	485	145	43	785	77098	65
1830	25	56	403	116	37	637	58094	24
1831	72	95	416	94	34	711	83967	68
1832	132	143	568	122	100	1065	114039	16
1833	144	169	625	185	65	1118	161626	36
1834	98	94	497	180	68	957	118330	37
1835	25	50	302	100	30	507	47238	52
1836	93	65	444	164	124	890	113627	49
1837	67	72	507	168	135	249	122987	22
1838	66	79	501	153	90	898	113135	42
1839	83	89	439	122	125	858	120988	34
1840	97	109	378	224	64	872	118309	23
1841	114	101	310	157	78	762	118893	71
1842	116	91	373	404	137	1021	179083	64
1843	58	34	138	173	79	482	63617	77
1844	73	47	204	279	163	766	113537	29
1845	124	87	322	342	163	1038	146018	02
1846	100	164	576	355	225	8424	188203	93
1847	151	168	689	392	198	1598	243732	67
1848	254	174	701	547	175	1851	318075	54
1849	198	148	623	370	268	1547	256377	47
1850	247	117	547	290	159	1360	371718	54
1851	211	65	532	326	233	1367	298202	60

5.—TONNAGE OF THE STATES.

Statement, showing the amount of Tonnage owned by each state, engaged in foreign and domestic commerce, for the fiscal years 1850 *and* 1851:

	1850.	1851.
Maine	501424 78	536114 44
N. Hampshire,	23096 38	25427 54
Vermont	4530 35	3932 31
Massachusetts	685442 76	694402 93
Rhode Island	40499 81	38050 42
Connecticut	113086 78	116179 85
New-York	944349 20	1841013 62
New-Jersey	80300 46	88895 90
Pennsylvania	258939 48	284373 64
Delaware	16719 57	11880 83
Maryland	193087 40	204444 54
Virginia	74266 05	69769 42
North Carolina,	74218 49	40722 17
South Carolina,	36072 13	44187 46
Georgia	21690 14	24185 24
Florida	11272 76	7042 08
Alabama	24157 60	21327 08
Mississippi	1827 62	1404 09
Louisiana	250089 80	253284 93
Missouri	28907 67	34065 46
Illinois	21242 17	23103 45
Kentucky	14820 19	12937 60
Tennessee	3776 05	3587 67
Ohio	27146 54	58352 24
Michigan	38144 49	41774 86
Texas	3897 42	4913 16
California	17591 77	58476 02
Wisconsin	—	2946 10
Dis. of Col'bia,	17010 61	22903 45
Oregon	1063 48	1068 43
Total	3535454 23	3771439 43

Steam Tonnage of the U. S. in 1850 *and* 1851:

Steam registered	1850.	1851.
tonnage.....tons.	44942 25	62390 13
Steam enrolled and licensed	481004 65	521216 87
	525946 90	583607 05
Increase		57760 10

Comparison of Tonnage for 1850 *and* 1851:

	1850.	1851.
Registered tonnage	1585711 22	1726307 23
Enrolled and licensed	1949743 01	2046132 20
Total tonnage	3535454 23	3772439 43

6.—IMPORT AND EXPORT STATISTICS UNITED STATES, 1851.

From the tables of the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, we take the following as of immediate interest:

Synopsis of Imports and Exports for the Fiscal Year, ending 30*th June*, 1851.

Foreign merchandise imported in American vessels	$160,115,714	
In Foreign vessels	50,642,380	
		$210,758,094
Specie imported in American vessels	$3,320,585	
In Foreign vessels	1,647,316	
		4,967,901
Total		$215,725,995
Foreign merchandise imported as above		210,758,094
Less exported, viz—		
In American vessels	$7,708,801	
In Foreign do	2,029,894	
		9,738,695
Foreign merchandise consumed		$201,019,399
Specie imported from Foreign ports		4,967,301
Do exported to do do in American coin	$18,069,580	
In Foreign coin	11,162.300	
		$29,281,880

EXPORTS, VIZ:

American produce in American vessels	$127,054,544	
In Foreign vessels	51,492,011	
		$178,546,555
Foreign goods re-exported		9,738,695
Total export of merchandise		$188,285,250

RECAPITULATION.

Total import of merchandise	$210,758,094
Do exports do	188,285,250
Excess of imports	$22,472,844
Total exports of specie to foreign ports	29,231,780
Do imports do from do do	4,967,901
Excess of exports	$24,263,979

The above does not include the gold from California.

From the statement of the quantity and quality of certain articles imported in 1845 and 1851, we take the following:

	1845		1851	
Iron.	Cwt.	Value.	Cwt.	Value.
Bar manufactured by rolling	1,023,772	$1,691,748	5,108,555	$7,267,350
Do do otherwise	363,580	872,157	403,973	900.026
Pig	550,209	506,291	1,308,732	587.599
Old and scrap	116,950	119,740	166,838	111,755

Total exports of cotton for 1851—927,237,089 lbs. Value, $112,315,317. Estimating 450 lbs. to the bale, gives 2,060,527 bales.

VALUE OF BREADSTUFFS AND PROVISIONS EXPORTED.

In 1850	$26,051,373
1851	21,421,216
Decrease in 1851	$4,630,157

IMPORTS, EXPORTS AND TONNAGE, FOR TEN YEARS!

	Imports.	Exports.	Tonnage.
1842	100,162,087	104,691,534	2,092,391
1843*	64,753,799	34,346,480	2,158,603
1844	108,435,035	111,200,046	2,280,095
1845	117,254,564	114,646,606	2,417,042
1846	121,691,797	113,388,516	2,562,085
1747	146,545,638	158,643,622	2,839.046
1848	154.998.928	154,032,181	3,154.042
1949	147,857,439	145,755,820	3,334,015
1850	178,136,318	151,898,720	3,585,454
1851	223,405,272	217,523,201	3,772,439

7.—EXPORTS OF COTTON FROM UNITED STATES, 1850–'51.

The total amount of Cotton Wool exported from the United States, for the fiscal year, 1851, compared with the fiscal year, 1850, was as follows:

1850.	lbs.	Value.
Sea Islands	8,236,463	$71,984,616.
All other	627,145,141	

1851.	lbs.	Value.
Sea Island	8,299,656	$112,315,317
All other	918,937,433	

The valuation of the crop of 1850, at the rates obtained for the crop of 1851, would have amounted to	$76,951,865
While crop of 1851, at the rates obtained for the crop of 1850, would have amounted but to	92,723,715
Averaging 450 pounds to the bale, the number of bales exported in 1851, were	2,060,527
Number of bales exported in 1850	1,411,959
Average price per bale in 1851	$54 50
Average price per bale in 1850	45 00

The annexed table exhibits the ports whence the raw material was sent abroad for the past fiscal year, together with the value and amounts of the same:

PORT.	QUALITY		
	Sea Islands.	Other kinds.	Value.
Boston	—	1,131,736	$146,588
New-Bedford	—	37,168	3,350
New-York	787,380	16,010,783	21,148,293
Philadelphia	—	2,094,718	200,544
Baltimore	—	174,041	21,438
Charleston	4.580,310	104,538,658	14,091,931
Savannah	2,927,263	68,473,428	8,878.319
Apalachicola	—	35,611,608	3,858,086
St. Marks	—	451,980	61,685
Mobile	—	159,929,389	18,406,864
New-Orleans	4,703	385.814,458	45,330,084
Galveston	—	646,843	75,422
Vermont	—	21,353	1,808
Genesee	—	1,270	150
Total	8,299,656	918,937,433	$112,315,317

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* Nine months, ending June 30.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

SOUTHERN AND WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE FIRST DAY.

January 5, 1852.

The Convention assembled at the Second Municipality Hall of New-Orleans; from six to eight hundred delegates being present, representing eleven states, were received by Col. Maunsel White, President of the Opelousas Convention, with the following brief address:

"Gentlemen,—Delegates from our sister states, we tender you a cordial and hearty welcome. We recognize you as friends and brothers, come amongst us by special invitation to deliberate on a matter worthy of American enterprise, in which the whole of the south-western states are deeply interested. Our design offers abundant inducement for the ready co-operation of all who may honor us with their attention. Viewed as public undertakings, the whole Union must acknowledge their importance, and even in the smaller consideration of individual interests, perhaps there never were roads contemplated of higher promise. Now, gentlemen, it will be for you to choose and elect the officers whom you desire to preside over this Convention, as we feel ourselves bound in courtesy to yield you that privilege, confident that in the exercise of this duty, you will be actuated by the sole desire of doing ample and even-handed justice to all the various interests that may be involved. This friendly meeting of representatives of popular interest for the common consideration of so profound a question, is entirely in accordance with the character of our age and day; and we sincerely trust, gentlemen, that the result of our deliberations will be equally compatible with the all-accomplishing genius of our country. Again, gentlemen, we bid you welcome. The meeting is now prepared for organization. May He who alone presides in an unquestionable wisdom, bless and direct your proceedings."

On motion of J. E. Caldwell, Hon. C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, was chosen President, *pro tem.*, and J. M. Burke, of Lafayette, Secretary, *pro tem.*

Mr. Tarpley, on taking the chair, said he was profoundly sensible of the high compliment that had been paid him, in being chosen to preside temporarily over the deliberations of so great a Convention. Should a suitable occasion present itself, he would give his views on some of the great matters that would engage the attention of the body. But this, he trusted, would be a working Convention; and the first proceeding in order, was for the chairmen of delegations to hand in a list of the delegates.

Joshua Baldwin, of New-Orleans, moved that a committee of three persons from each State represented in the Convention, be appointed to nominate permanent officers.

J. D. B. De Bow, of New-Orleans, proposed a substitute for Mr. Baldwin's resolution, that a recess of an hour be taken; that the chairman of each delegation send in the lists of their respective colleagues, and that then a committee to nominate permanent officers, to be chosen, three from the Convention at large, and two from each state.

John Martin, of Little Rock, offered an amendment to the substitute, that the delegates from each state elect one of their number to form the committee.

As the Chair was about to take the sense of the Convention on Mr. Martin's motion, William H. Garland, of New-Orleans, moved to lay both substitutes on the table, and his motion prevailed. The original resolution of Mr. Baldwin was then adopted, with an amendment, substituting two delegates from each state for three.

M. M. Cohen, of New-Orleans, moved that preparations be made to accommodate ladies in the hall, who may compliment the Convention with their presence.

The resolution was adopted, and a recess of half an hour was then taken to give the several delegations time to prepare their lists.

The Convention having re-assembled, the following committees on officers were announced:

Mississippi.—Gen. Acee, Rev. R. L. Gladney.
Missouri.—H. Chouteau, Wm. Wade.
Florida.—J. M. Landrum, Joseph Forsyth.
Alabama.—J. P. Parham, T. B. Goldsby.
Tennessee.—Col. Herman, Col. G. W. Peck.
Kentucky.—Wm. Loery, J. N. Beadles.
Virginia.—Wm. M. Burwell, James McDowell.
Texas.—John T. Mills, J. G. Wright.
Arkansas.—Albert Pike, John Martin.
Louisiana.—James Robb, J. H. Overton.

The Convention, at half-past 1, adjourned to 6 P. M., to allow the committees on officers time to report.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention re-assembled punctually at 6, Hon. C. S. Tarpley in the chair. The following are the lists of delegates handed in; they do not include a very large number who were present by appointment of the Governor of Louisiana, but whose names were not handed in to the Secretary. A great many from other states were also not recorded for the same reason.

Louisiana.—*Parish of St. Landry.*—David Martin, P. Hardy, C. S. Snagee, W. M. Prescott.

Caddo.—Roland Jones, M. Estes, B. L. Hodge, C. G. Young.

Natchitoches.—C. G. Campbell, A. Lecomte, L. G. De Russey, P. Prudhomme, L. M. Hyams.

Ascension.—D. F. Kenner, J. Landry, A. Duffel, E. Duffel, I. H. Illsley, T. E. H. Cottman, J. Thibaut, N. Landry, A. J. Powell, P. O. Ayrand, A. Maurin, A. Gingry, W. Hatkinson, R. McCall, R. W. Boyd, A. F. Righter, L. D. Nicholls, W. C. Lawes, E. Pedesclaus, V. Pujos, J. L. Marciacq, A. M. Templet, F. Blanchard, J. Lehman, V. Landry, M. Rodriguez, V. St. Martin, H. B. Trist.

St. Helena.—John Corken, D. W. Thompson, N. Amacker, L. Draughan, C. B. Strickland, Jr., H. B. McKie, John Sharkey, A. Womack, Jr., J. H. Wright, W. H. Strickland.

Livingston.—G. W. Waterston, D. Wolls, J. R. Ellis, S. Backston, George Colmer, D. B. Cason, R. Babington, C. C. Kennedy, A. S. Parker, G. F. Rowell, J. Watts, W. E. Walker, H. J. Bennett, D. Addison, James P. Ellmore, Dr. Taylor.

Catahoula.—H. W. Huntington, J. S. Alexander.

Concordia.—Edward Sparrow.

East Baton Rouge.—D. D. Avery, C. G. McHatten, W. S. Pike, T. G. Morgan.

West Baton Rouge.—Noland Stewart, V. Dubecq, W. R. Stuart, P. Hebert, J. T. Landry, J. P. Vaughan.

De Soto.—T. T. Williamson, H. Phillips.

Rapides.—T. O. Moore, C. H. Flower, A. Prescott, D. C. Goodwin, T. J. Wells, M. Wells, James Andrews, O. N. Ogden, M. Ryan, L. Texada, Gen. G. M. Graham, W. W. Whittington.

Terrebonne.—John C. Potts, G. F. Connelly, J. Aycock, H. C. Thibodaux, J. V. Bortelon, A. McCollom, A. Verret, C. B. Devux.

Plaquemines.—J. B. Wilkinson.

St. Charles.—S. McCutcheon, Judge Lablanche, W. Polk, Richard Taylor.

St. Martin.—A. De Blanc, A. Declouet, William Robertson, T. C. Nichols, I. E. Morse.

Morehouse.—Major Brigham.

St. Tammany.—Alfred Hennen.

Pointe Coupee.—B. B. Simmes, J. R. Harris, J. L. Matthews, Charles Allen, Charles Poydras.

St. John the Baptist.—A. Deslonde, Jr.

Jefferson.—P. Sauve, H. E. Lawrence, T. J. Ivy.

Ouachita.—John Ray.

Union.—Gen. Henderson, J. H. Carson.

Lafayette.—A. Martin, C. H. Mouton.

Orleans.—E. La Sere, J. A. Gasquet.

Sabine.—H. Phillips.

Lafourche.—Bishop Polk.

St. Mary.—F. D. Richardson, A. L. Field.

Town of Madisonville.—D. Hadden, R. M. Davis, W. A. Grice, J. S. Clark, H. L. Smith, J. B. Behan, W. Terry, W. H. Merritt, T. B. Harper.

Town of Carrollton.—Henry Milhoff, JohnHampson, C. G. Forshey, C. W. Muncaster, E. Meegel, F. Schuber.

City of Jefferson.—John M. Bach, J. Calhoun, C. Beebee, Samuel Ricker, C. Brown McNeil, H. H. Williams, Thomas May, W. P. Coleman.

City of New-Orleans.—L. J. Harris, Hon. J. E. Morse, W. Elmore, L. Surgi, Dr. F. Alpuente, T. G. Collins, J. Genois, E. Solomon, D. Cronan, George Allan, W. C. Tompkins, C. M. Waterman, J. Leeds, J. S. Holden, G. May, J. H. Caldwell, B. H. Payne, J. M. Cucullu, J. J. Lughenbuhl, G. De Feriet, P. Seuzeneau, George Clark, J. C. Prendergast, H. L. Piere, A. Derbes, J. A. Bonneval, A. Fisk, L. Heyleger, G. A. Holt, J. L. McLean, John Yoeennes, P. A. Degelos, A. Fernandez, N. C. Folger, W. T. Hepp, C. De Blanc, D. Lanata, A. Dupre, J. Cassard, R. W. Montgomery, H. C. Cammack, M. Blasco, A. Miltenberger, J. W. Zacharie, L. E. Forstall, F. Correjolles, J. M. Lepeyre, John Pemberton, M. Barnett, Sr., H. Legendre, F. Buisson, W. Vogel, N. Richards, R. D. Sheppard, V. Wiltz, J. Viosca, F. Marguez, R. M. McAlpin, J. D. Denegre, G. B. Duncan, B. Avegno, Jr., L. F. Maxent, P. Desverges, W. E. Wilson, G. Bieneau, G. Burke, James Robb, L. Mathews, W. H. Garland, P. Conrey, Jr., W. S. Campbell, J. Baldwin, H. J. Ranney, J. P. Harrison, John G. Cocks, A. J. Wedderburn, E. Rawle, G. M. Pinkard, H. W. Palfrey, John R. Shaw, H. G. Stetson, J. O. Nixon, H. M. Summers, A. P. Simpson, J. N. Hawthorne, Thomas Curry, D. Conyngham, M. M. Cohen, N. R. Jennings, W. P. Atwood, I. N. Marks, R. W. Powell, A. Harris, J. H. Maddox, P. Irwin, Colonel Seymour, S. W. Oakey, Alex. Walker, J. W. Stanton, J. D. B. De Bow, A. M. Holbrook, Logan McNight, S. Turner, J. G. Gribble, S. Story, S. S. Harby, H. Kennedy, A. Montanye, J. A. Beard, W. P. Converse, E. McPherson, T. B. Winston, S. J. Peters, H. Florance, R. Hunt, W. Cristy, L. Hunton, J. G. Dunlap, J. Crickard, J. E. Caldwell, C. C. Lathrop, C. J. Leeds, J. W. Price, A. Lanfear, S. Smith, I. D. Marsh, Janus Bonner, W. G. Kendall, E. E. Parker.

City of Lafayette.—John M. Burke, B. Florance, H. S. Buckner, A. D. Kelly, L. De Saulea, Logan McKnight, J. H. Donegan, C. T. Buddecke, R. N. Ogden, D. S. Dewees, James Norment, S. H. Peck, L. R. Kenny, H. J. Hart, N. Commander, M. M. Dowler, John Turpin, T. C. Jenkins, T. G. Mackay, D. Hadden, S. S. Burdette, R. W. Milbank, S S. Green, John A. Watkins, H. E. Lawrence.

VIRGINIA.—William M. Burwell, James McDowell.

KENTUCKY.—William Soery, J. N. Beadles, W. Thornsbury, H. M. McCarty, T. Davis, J. W. Jones, J. Campble.

TENNESSEE.—Col. A. Herman, and James A. Porter, Nashville; Right. Rev. J. H. Otey, Col. George W. Polk, and Gen. L. J. Polk, Maury county; T. Trezevant, R. C. Brinkley, J. R. McClennahan, D. M. Leatherman, W. Armour, J. T. Leath.

ALABAMA.—T. B. Goldsby, P. J. Weaver, J. W. Lapsley, George P. Blevins, W. S. Burr, J. P. Perham.

FLORIDA.—J. M. Landrum, William D. Keyser, and John Forsyth, St. Rosa county.

MISSOURI.—(Appointed by the St. Louis Chamber of Commerce.)—P. R. McCreery, E. J. Gay, W. C. Kennett, R. A. Burnes, R. J. Lockwood, R. N. Rennick, and Franklin Childs, absent; Henry Chouteau, and William Wade, present.

MISSISSIPPI.—C. S. Tarpley, Hinds county; Gen. E. L. Acee, Yallabusha county; Rev. R. S. Gladney, Aberdeen; Rev. J. Sidney Hays, Louisville; Col. John Duncan, Grenada; Major A. M. Foute, Jackson; Z. Rector, French Camp; Major Samuel White, Pearlington; Col. H. G. Street, Liberty; R. A. Johnson, Princeton; R. H. Crump, J. W. Vick, G. G. Noland, Shepherd Brown, N. G. Watts, J. D. Cobb, and J. Willis, Vicksburg; W. V. Lane, Warrenton; J. S. Yerger, Greenville; J. S. McCall, H. W. Walter, Richard H. Stokes, S. W. Land.

ARKANSAS.—Capt. Albert Pike, Col. A. Fowler, R. C. Farrelly, Little Rock; Colonel John Martin, St. Helena; Rev. Leonard Fletcher, J. C. Palmer, R. F. Sutton, S. C. Faulkner, Luther Chase, W. D. Ferguson.

TEXAS.—Travis G. Wright, Amos Morrill, J. T. Mills, Red River county; C. C. Alexander, S. B. Allen, Lamar county.

GEORGIA.—Peter Conrey, and others, citizens of New-Orleans, appointed to represent that state, presented their credentials.

Mr. Robb, from the committee on officers, reported the following, and the nominations were unanimously approved:

Ex-Gov. ALEX. MOUTON, of La., *President.*

Vice-Presidents.—C. S. Tarpley, Mississippi; Joseph Forsyth, Florida; Gen. Lucius C. Polk, Tennessee; William N. Burwell, Virginia; Amos Morrill, Texas; H. Chouteau, Missouri; P. P. Parham, Alabama; J. N. Beadles, Kentucky; Judge James Campbell, Louisiana; Absalom Fowler, Arkansas.

Secretaries.—John Calhoun, Victor Wiltz, Louisiana; R. C. Farreley, Arkansas; John Duncan, Mississippi.

Governor Mouton, on taking the Chair, addressed the Convention as follows:

"*Gentlemen of the Convention:*—For the unexpected honor you have conferred on me, I tender you my thanks. I am fully aware of the difficulties that surround my position, and sometimes think I am hardly equal to the discharge of the duties you have imposed upon me; but looking at the character of the gentlemen assembled here, and appreciating their intelligence and patriotism, and the motives that actuate them, I throw myself unhesitatingly upon their indulgence, and hope, with their assistance, that the results anticipated from the meeting will be accomplished. I congratulate you upon the high motives that have engaged you in this movement. We have all in view the common good of the country, and in working for this end, we cannot expect that all will agree exactly as to the means; but the spirit in which you have assembled is sufficient, guarantee that whatever difficulties may arise, they will disappear in the presence of the ambition for the general good. You have honored me by associating with me distinguished gentlemen from other states, upon whose assistance I rely. I have not for many years participated in parliamentary proceedings, but, gentlemen, the great objects for which we have assembled, preclude the supposition that we will be impeded by technicalities; and I repeat my confident belief, that our deliberations will be harmonious, and will result favorably."

Mr. Robb, with a few prefatory remarks, offered a resolution authorizing the Chair to appoint three committees, viz.: one on Routes; one on Ways and Means, and one on Resolutions. The resolution was adopted without dissent, the Chair to announce the committees at the next meeting.

A gentleman, whose name we did not hear, asked if all the routes which were entitled to the friendly regard of the various delegations present, were to be referred to the Committee on Routes.

Mr. Robb explained that the object of his resolution, and the appointment of the committees referred to, was to prevent that dissipation of influence and power, which would inevitably result from the open debate of every scheme that might be brought before the Convention. They met not for an idle purpose; not for the mere expression of opinion, but to accomplish results, and those results should be accomplished. The object was to devise practicable projects; to establish a grand system of rail-roads, which would make New-Orleans and the Southwest what they ought to be, and to devise the ways and means by which this great end might be attained. In the course of his remarks, he expressed his high gratification at the large and influential assemblage he saw before him, and from the spirit which animated it, argued undoubted and early success.

Mr. Hampson, of Louisiana, offered a resolution that in voting, each state should have but one vote, and the resolution was referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

TUESDAY, *January* 6, 1852.

MORNING SESSION.

The Convention met at half past 11 o'clock, A. M.

The minutes of yesterday's sittings were read and approved.

The following committees were announced by the President:

Committee on Routes.

Virginia.—Wm. M. Burwell, Wyndham Robertson, Dr. James McDowell. *Texas.*—Jno. T. Mills, C. C. Alexander, H. G. Catlitt. *Mississippi.*—R. S. Gladney, E. L. Acee, J. W. Vick. *Arkansas.*—Albert Pike, John Martin, A. Fowler. *Missouri.*—Henry Chouteau, P. R. McCreery, Edward J. Gay. *Kentucky.*—William Soery, J. N. Beadles. *Alabama.*—P. J. Weaver, T. B. Goldsby, G. P. Blevins. *Tennessee.*—Rev. J. H. Otey, L. J. Polk, Jas. A. Porter. *Louisiana.*—Col. W. S. Campbell, L. G. DeRussey, Buckner H. Payne. *Florida.*—W. J. Keyser, J. M. Landrum, Jos. Forsyth.

Committee on Ways and Means.

Virginia.—W. M. Burwell, Wyndham Robertson, Dr. Jas. McDowell. *Texas.*—A. Morrill, S. P. Allen, T. G. Wright. *Mississippi.*—Shepherd Brown, Samuel White, H. G. Street. *Arkansas.*—Luther Chase, Wm. D. Ferguson, C. F. Sutton. *Missouri.*—W. C. Kennett, R. A. Barnes, R. J. Lockwood. *Kentucky.*—William Soery, J. N. Beadles. *Alabama.*—P. J. Weaver, J. W. Lapsley, J. B. Parham. *Tennessee.*—Lucius J. Polk, James A. Porter, A. Heiman. *Louisiana.*—James Robb, Henry Phillips, J. P. Benjamin. *Florida.*—Jos. Forsyth, W. J. Keyser, J. M. Landrum.

Committee on Resolutions.

Mississippi.—J. S. Yerger, H. G. Street, R. A. Johnson. *Virginia.*—W. M. Burwell, Wyndham Robertson, Dr. Jas. McDowell. *Texas.*—Jno. T. Mills, T. G. Wright, H. G. Catlett. *Arkansas.*—Albert Pike, John Martin, L. C. Faulkner. *Missouri.*—Wm. Wade, Franklin Chiles, Dr. J. A. January. *Kentucky.*—William Soery, J. N. Beadles. *Alabama.*—J. W. Lapsley. W. F. Burr, J. B. Parham. *Tennessee.*—Geo. W. Polk, J. H. Otey, A. Heiman. *Louisiana.*—M. M. Cohen, A. Declouet, J. H. Overton. *Florida.*—J. M. Landrum, W. J. Keyser, Jos. Forsyth.

Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, presented the following resolutions, and moved to refer them to a special committee of five:

Resolved, That the Legislature of the State of Mississippi be, and it is hereby most respectfully solicited, to grant a charter to a company to construct a rail-road from the city of Jackson or from Canton, in said state, to some point on the north-eastern boundary line of said state, to connect with the Nashville and Southern Rail-road.

Resolved, That said Legislature be, and it is hereby most respectfully solicited, to grant a charter to a company to construct a rail-road from this city to Jackson, or from Canton in said state, northwardly and centrally through said state.

Resolved, That said Legislature of the State of Mississippi be, and the same is hereby most respectfully solicited, to afford such aid as it may deem proper to the construction of said roads; also, the construction of that portion of the Jackson and New-Orleans rail-road, within the limit of the State of Mississippi, and also to the construction of that portion of the Brandon and Montgomery Rail-road within the limit of said state.

Resolved, That the city of New-Orleans, by her delegates in this Convention, hereby pledges herself for a very liberal aid in the construction of the said several rail-roads.

Resolved, That a committee of —— be appointed by the President of the Convention to wait upon the Legislature of the State of Mississippi, now in session, present these resolutions, and confer with the said Legislature upon the subjects presented by them, at such time and in such manner as said Legislature may appoint.

On motion of Mr. James Robb, of Louisiana, it was resolved, that the members of the different committees have the power of substitution.

The following was presented by Col. C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, as a substitute for the resolutions of Mr. Walter:

Resolved, That the President of this Convention appoint a committee, consisting of two members, upon each of the following routes of rail-road, to wit: the roads from New-Orleans to Nashville; from New-Orleans to Opelousas; from Jackson to Selma; from Jackson to Holly Springs; from Vicksburg to Shreveport; from Little Rock to the Mississippi River; from Memphis to Charleston; together with such other routes as may be suggested by any delegate in attendance on this Convention, whose duty it shall be to report to this Convention all the information connected with each of said routes, giving the distance, population, production and benefits of said routes, together with all such information connected with the same, as they may deem necessary and proper to communicate; and that said reports be printed, and constitute a portion of the proceedings of this Convention.

Mr. B. H. Payne, of Louisiana, offered an amendment to the substitute of Col. Tarpley, but the President ruled that an amendment to a substitute was out of order.

Mr. R. A. Johnson, of Mississippi, moved to lay the resolutions of Mr. Walter and the substitute of Col. Tarpley, on the table, which motion was carried.

Mr. John T. Mills, of Texas, made a motion, which was carried, that the mode of voting be settled before the Convention proceed to any other business.

On motion of Mr. I. E. Morse, of Louisiana, it was unanimously

Resolved, That the voting in Convention shall be by states, each being equal, and the mode of casting the vote be determined by a majority of the delegates from such states.

On motion of Mr. C. G. Forshey, of Louisiana, it was resolved that the President appoint a messenger to the Convention.

On motion, the Convention took a recess for ten minutes.

The Convention having re-assembled, the President appointed Caspar Funk, messenger.

On motion of Mr. W. M. Burwell, of Virginia, it was

Resolved, that the standing committees have leave to sit during the sittings of the Convention.

Mr. James Robb, of Louisiana, made a motion, which was carried, that the Committee of Arrangements assign places on the floor to the delegations from the several states.

Mr. G. C. Lawrason, of Louisiana, made a motion, which was adopted, that the vote by states shall not be taken, unless specially called for.

The following, offered by Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, was adopted:

Resolved, That the delegations from each state be requested to present to the

Convention all reports, projects or plans, for improvements in their respective states, to be read, and if desired, discussed, and referred to the appropriate general committees.

Mr. J. E. Caldwell, of Louisiana, made a motion, which was carried, that the several states be now called on to present their *projects*.

The following was offered by Mr. Albert Pike, of Arkansas, and on his motion, referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That this Convention is profoundly penetrated with the conviction that the state of Louisiana and the city of New-Orleans are deeply interested in the development of the resources of such of the South-western states as lie west of the Mississippi River, in the increase of their population and production, and in securing to the city of New-Orleans, for all coming time, by energetic measures promptly taken and steadfastly pursued, the great and growing trade of that important region, for which Providence has done everything, and Man, hitherto, little or nothing.

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes be instructed to inquire in regard to the agricultural and mineral resources of the state of Arkansas, and those portions of the states of Texas and Missouri, the trade of which can be permanently secured to the city of New-Orleans, and what roads are contemplated in those states, in the building of which, that city is, in fact, interested.

Resolved, That the Committee on Ways and Means are instructed to inquire in what manner aid can be extended by the state of Louisiana and city of New-Orleans towards the construction of such roads.

Resolved, That this Convention will urge upon the people and the legislature of the state of Louisiana the importance of becoming acquainted with the great natural resources of those states, of aiding in their development by all proper and legitimate means, and of opening channels by which their trade shall flow permanently into the city of New-Orleans, instead of being diverted soon, and diverted forever, to the Atlantic cities; to which end they will urge the state of Louisiana to draw closer the bonds which unite her with those sister states; to assure them of her earnest and cordial co-operation and sympathy in their plans of improvement, and her warm interest in their prosperity and welfare, and to pledge to them her aid, her encouragement, and her kind offices, and those of her citizens and of her Representatives and Senators in the Congress of the United States.

The following, offered by Mr. W. M. Burwell, of Virginia, was adopted:

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes inquire into the expediency of recognizing and recommending to public patronage the South-western National rail-road, commencing at New-Orleans and terminating at Washington City, passing through the states of Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Tennessee, Virginia, and offering the shortest line of mail and travel transit between New-Orleans and New-York.

The following preamble, resolutions, &c., were offered by Mr. R. S. Gladney, of Mississippi, and on motion of Mr. Walter, they were referred to the Committee on Routes, with instructions to report to-morrow morning.

Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Florida, and Alabama were not prepared with any projects. The call of Mississippi was responded to by the Rev. M. Bradley, who offered the following resolutions:

Whereas we live in an age in which the rail-road system is the great labor-saving machinery in the way of transportation and travel, controlling directly the commercial world, and indirectly affecting all the pursuits of life; and, consequently, the wealth, education, civilization and power, both political and military, wherever it exists; therefore,

Resolved, That the great interests of the South and West require that their energies should be put forth in planning and constructing great systems of railways, for the purpose of giving a proper direction to their commerce, developing all their natural resources, establishing and building up manufactories, increasing their wealth and population, and maintaining their power, their influence, and their institutions.

Resolved, That the friends of the rail-road system should first direct their efforts to those great and leading trunks, which, from their length and location, the points which they connect, and the country through which they pass, will render it certain, that they will be highly important, not only in a commercial point, but profitable to stockholders; affording the greatest facilities for the construction of branches; and the route such as will call forth the energies and resources necessary to their speedy construction.

Resolved, That the interests of the South and Southwest require, that their own cities on the coast should become the great emporiums of imports and exports; that the towns of the interior are the most important feeders of the importing and exporting cities; the proper distributors of merchandise, and are highly necessary to the full development of the wealth, and the increase of the population of the country; and that in the construction of rail-roads, special reference should be had to the building up of the interior towns, as the means of increasing the wealth and population of the country, upon which depend the growth and prosperity of our cities upon the coast.

Resolved, That the Opelousas road, to be continued through Texas, and ultimately to the Pacific Ocean, and the New-Orleans and Jackson road, to be continued northward in the direction of Holly Springs, and northeastward to Aberdeen, thence to Tuscumbia, to meet with the contemplated road thence to Nashville, Louisville, and Cincinnati, to connect with the roads running to Lake Erie and other places, and branching off at Tuscumbia to Chattanooga, thence running to Knoxville, Tenn., Washington and Baltimore; constituting the most direct routes from New-Orleans to Lake Erie and New-York, connected either directly or indirectly with the principal rail-roads and rivers in the United States, leading directly from all the older states to Texas and California, and destined, so soon as the road is constructed to the Pacific, to be the great highway of the China trade, is a project not more magnificent than important, and claims the most respectful consideration of this Convention.

Resolved, That to render the railway system most economical, effective, and profitable, it requires concert of action on the part of the citizens of each state, as to different roads within its limits, and of the different states as to roads passing through and connecting them, in planning and constructing rail-roads; and that we recommend annual conventions, and the appointment of standing committees, who shall communicate and advise with each other on all matters of importance relative to the plans and progress of rail-roads, and that we recommend De Bow's Review as a suitable medium of communication, and regard it as a most important auxiliary in the great cause of internal improvement.

Resolved, That while we regard the public lands as belonging equally to all the states, and held by Congress in trust for the benefit of all equally, we approve of donations for the purpose of constructing important rail-roads, by which the public lands are enhanced in value, and the private and public interests equally promoted.

Mr. J. E. Caldwell, of La., gave notice that room No. 18 had been assigned to the Committee on Routes; room No. 21 to the Committee on Ways and Means; and room No. 22 to the Committee on Resolutions.

On motion, the Convention adjourned until 6 o'clock, P. M.

TUESDAY, *January* 6, 1852.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention met at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

Mr. W. S. Campbell, of Louisiana, gave notice that he had substituted the name of Mr. C. G. Young, of Louisiana, for his own, on the Committee on Routes.

Mr. John Martin, of Arkansas, gave notice that he had substituted the name of Mr. John C. Palmer, of Arkansas, for his own, on the Committee on Resolutions.

The following was presented by Mr. C. G. Young, of Louisiana, who moved that it be received and referred to the Committee on Routes, which was carried.

[Will be published in another place.]

Mr. J. P. Benjamin, of Louisiana, being called on, addressed the Convention.

Mr. De Bow, acting chairman of the Committee on Correspondence, informed the Convention that communications had been received from Lieutenant Maury upon the subject of promoting the foreign trade at the South; from Col. Abert of the Topographical Corps, on the extension of railroads in Texas; from Mr. Gregg, of S. C., on the manufacturing prosperity of the southern states; from Mr.

Saunders, of North Carolina, on the same subject; from Mr. Bates, of Missouri, and Col. Phillips, of Mobile. Mr. De Bow deemed it proper that these communications should be published, which was ordered. He also addressed the Convention at length upon the general subjects before it.

The following, presented by Mr. John Martin, of Arkansas, was referred to the Committee on Routes [Will be published in another place.]

Col. Tarpley, of Mississippi, presented the following resolution, with the request that it should lie on the table for the present, He observed that the people of Mississippi felt a deep and warm interest in the measures and objects of this Convention.

Resolved, That when this Convention adjourns, it will adjourn to meet in the city of Jackson, in the State of Mississippi, on Monday, the 12th inst.; and the members of the Convention are cordially invited to attend, and the hospitalities of the city of Jackson are hereby tendered to each and all of them.

Mr. J. S. Yerger, of Mississippi, presented a resolution which was unanimously adopted, that a committee wait upon J. P. Benjamin, Esq., and request a copy of his speech for publication. [Mr. Benjamin declines to furnish the speech, not having time to write it out.]

Mr. Lathrop, of N. O., presented a series of resolutions expressive of the duties which the legislature is called upon to perform in changing the present restrictive constitution, and also pointing out certain roads which this Convention ought to look upon with favor. The resolutions lie over until to-morrow.

Mr. J. T. Trezevant, of Tennessee, presented the following resolutions, and moved that they be laid on the table, which was carried. [Not found.]

Mr. A. J. Power, of Louisiana, presented a report, which, on his motion, was referred to the Committee on Routes. Adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, *January* 7, 1852.

MORNING SESSION.

The Convention met at 11 o'clock, A.M.

The minutes of yesterday's morning and evening sessions were read.

General E. L. Acee, of Mississippi, presented the following resolutions, which on his motion, were referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

Resolved, That it is alike the duty and interest of the Southwestern states to foster and build up the cities near or along the Atlantic seaboard; and that it is the opinion of this Convention no policy is better calculated to effect this great object than a liberal and enlightened system of internal improvement connecting ery important section of the aforesaid states by leading rail-road communica- ns.

Resolved, That for the more certain promotion of this desirable object, it is respectfully recommended to the above-mentioned states, to adopt a uniform system in the construction of their rail-roads, by which means all delays in the conveyance of produce, merchandise and passengers, from one state to another, will be avoided.

Resolved, That the policy of donating the public lands to private persons, as lately urged in Congress, is unjust, not only to the old states, but to many of the new, and is calculated not only to divert population from the Southwest, but to diminish, still further, the political power of the slave-holding states.

Resolved, That even-handed justice requires that Congress should cede respectively to the states of Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Texas, Arkansas, and Missouri, at least six million of acres of the public domain, for the construction of rail-roads within their limits, and that the senators and representatives from said states be, and are hereby requested to procure said donations as soon as practicable.

Mr. H. G. Street, of Miss., substituted Mr. J. S. Hays, in place of himself, on the Committee on Routes.

The Chair announced the following appointments to the several committees from the delegation from Georgia:

Committee on Resolutions—John Slidell, W. C. Micou, J. Brander.

Committee on Routes—J. Brander, J. W. Stanton, W. C. Micou.

Committee of Ways and Means.—Peter Conrey, J. W. Stanton, E. S. Slatter.

Mr. W. M. Burwell, of Virginia, presented the following:

That Gen. O. G. Clay and J. R. Anderson be substituted on the Standing Committee, in the absence of others from Virginia.

On motion, the report and resolutions presented by Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, on the 6th instant. were adopted.

Mr. A. Fowler, of Arkansas, offered the following resolutions, which, on his motion, were referred to the Committee on Routes.

Resolved, That this Convention approve of the line designated in the charter of the "Arkansas Central Rail-road Company" as an important link in the general rail-road system of the Southwestern states and of the Union.

Resolved, That this Convention recommend the several delegations in Congress from the states represented here, to lend their countenance and aid in furthering the objects of the accompanying memorial, and in consummating the grant of lands therein prayed for.

Resolved, That in the opinion of this Convention, it is not only proper but necessary, in carrying out the primary objects of the Convention, and in advancing the prosperity of the States of Missouri, Arkansas, Texas and Louisiana, that said line of rail-road, from some point east of Little Rock, be extended to St. Louis, and from its southern terminus by one line through the State of Texas, and another to New-Orleans. Referred.

The following resolutions, presented by Mr. John Ray, of Louisiana, were referred to the Committee on Routes.

Resolved, That the Senators and Representatives in the Congress of the United States, representing the states represented in this Convention, be requested to use their exertions and influence to obtain from the United States a survey of the proposed railroad route from the Mississippi River via Shreveport, west, with a view to the relative advantage and practicability of this route as the eastern terminus of the contemplated Pacific Rail-road.

Resolved, That said Senators and Representatives be also requested to use their exertions and influence in obtaining the repeal of the duty on rail-road iron imported into the United States.

A report relative to rail-roads in progress of construction and projected in Missouri, was presented by Mr. H. Chouteau, and on his motion referred to the same committee. [Will be published in another place.]

The following, presented by Mr. John T. Mills, of Texas, was, on his motion, referred to the same committee.

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes be instructed to inquire into the most practicable route, by rail-road, of connecting the northeast portion of Texas with the Mississippi River, at some point below the city of Memphis, and report thereon. Referred.

The following preamble and resolution, offered by Mr. B. B. Simmes, of Louisiana, were, on his motion, referred to the same committee :

Whereas there exists in this Convention conflicting views as to that portion of country through which the principal rail-road line westward should run—

And whereas it would be imprudent in a matter of such magnitude to decide hastily, or without a full examination and survey of the different routes proposed ; therefore, be it

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair for the purpose of memorializing Congress to have appointed a board of engineers, whose duty it shall be to determine the most practicable route for a rail-road from the Mississippi to the Sabine, to meet the Great Western and Pacific Rail road, as projected through Texas; and that it be made the duty of said board of engineers to examine the routes proposed through Louisiana at, and south of, the mouth of Red river. Referred.

Mr. L. M. Hyams, of Louisiana, presented the following resolutions, and, on his motion, they were referred to the Committee on Routes.

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes be instructed to report upon the practicability and expediency of connecting any rail-road from Texas with Shreveport, in the parish of Caddo ; thence through the parishes of Nachitoches, Rapides and Avoyelles, to connect with the Opelousas Road at Washington.

Resolved, That it belongs of right to the state of Texas to determine whether she will so unite, and at what point on the western boundary. Referred.

On motion of Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, the resolutions of Mr. Trezevant, of Tennessee, were made the order of the day for 8 o'clock, P.M.

Mr. Henry, of Mobile, offered resolutions to the effect that banks were of material assistance in making rail-roads; and that the Convention memorialize the Legislatures of the Southern and Western states that were opposed to chartering banks, requesting them to review their opposition, and grant charters for the purpose. Referred.

Mr. J. Baldwin, of New-Orleans, offered a resolution, that this Convention remain as it is, undissolved, hereafter; that it meet once a year at such time and place as may be found most needed. [Referred to the Committee on Resolutions.

WEDNESDAY, *January* 7, 1852.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention met at half-past six o'clock, P. M.

An invitation to the Convention to join in the celebration of the Anniversary of the 8th of January, 1815, was read and accepted.

The following preamble and resolutions were offered by Mr. C. C. Lathrop, as a substitute for those offered by him yesterday, and on his motion, they were referred to the Committee on Resolutions. [These resolutions were not returned.)

Mr. C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, by invitation, addressed the Convention.

Mr. James Robb, of Louisiana, Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, stated that the report of that committee was not yet finished, but with the consent of the Convention, he would give an outline of the same, verbally, and furnish the written report at a subsequent meeting. Having addressed the Convention, he offered the following resolutions on behalf of said committee, which were adopted by the vote of every state represented in the Convention.

Resolved, That the great system of internal communication by rail-roads through the Southern and Southwestern States, is an object of such importance, as to justify and require a liberal application of the resources of the states interested in these works.

Resolved, That the voluntary subscriptions of private individuals are inadequate to the accomplishment of works of such magnitude.

Resolved, That public lands in the Western and Southwestern States of this Union ought to be liberally appropriated to the objects now proposed, and that this appropriation ought to be made by a general law, applicable within proper restrictions to all the rail-road enterprises in which the people of the West and Southwest are interested.

Resolved, That the great additional value given to public lands by rail-roads passing in their neighborhood, and the augmented revenues derived by the Government from the increased population and wealth which result directly from such works, render it peculiarly proper and equitable that the General Government, which shares in the benefit, should contribute by grants of land to the cost of such works.

Resolved, That it is the right of the people, whenever they may deem it proper, to subscribe through their municipal and parochial corporations, for the stock of rail-roads calculated to advance their interests, and that the legislatures of the diffrent states ought, by law, to authorize their cities, parishes and counties, to make such subscription when desired by the respective inhabitants.

Resolved, That the resources for the payment of such subscriptions when made, ought to be derived from taxes levied on landed property, inasmuch as that species of property is more than any other, benefited and enhanced in value by works of internal improvement.

Resolved, That whenever subscriptions are made by cities, counties or parishes, it is inexpedient that the administration of the stock thus subscribed should remain under the control of the local authorities, and that it ought to be distributed amongst those whose property has been taxed for its payment, in proportion to the amount paid by each; to the end that each individual may be stimulated by personal interest to a vigilant supervision of the conduct of the work.

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed by the chair to address to the Congress of the United States and to the Legislatures of the separate states, ceremonials in support of the principles contained in these resolutions.

On motion of Mr. J. T. Trezevant, of Tennessee, the resolutions presented by him were referred to the Committee on Routes.

On motion, the Convention adjourned until to-morrow.

FRIDAY, *January* 9, 1852.

MORNING SESSION.

The Convention met at half-past ten o'clock, A. M., Vice-President A. Fowler, of Arkansas, in the chair.

The minutes of the 7th and 8th instant were read and approved.

The following, offered by Mr. R. J. Ranney, of Louisiana, was unanimously adopted:—

Resolved, That a committee consisting of one member from each of the states represented in this Convention be appointed by the President for the purpose of recommending (after consultation with managers and engineers of the various rail-roads already made and in operation, or in progress towards completion,) the most suitable and proper gauge or breadth between the rails, with a view to its adoption for all the rail-roads which may be constructed in the Southern and Western States.

Mr. W. N. Burwell, of Virginia, chairman of the Committee on Routes, presented the following:—

Resolved, That the Committee on Routes regard the following system of internal improvements as not only indispensable to the development of the agricultural, commercial and mineral wealth of the Southwestern states and cities, but also as essential to the equality and unity of the states of this Confederacy; and they earnestly recommend the same to the patriotic consideration of the legislature and citizens of the Southwestern states.

1. A national road to the Pacific ocean; with one terminus on the Mississippi River north, and one south of the mouth of the Ohio River, so as to divide the advantages of each road as equally as possible among the different states of the Union.

2. The Southwestern National Rail-road, from Washington City to New-Orleans, passing through the States of Virginia, Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana; constituting the shortest practicable line of mail and travel transit, and consisting of the following continuous sections now under construction, to wit: the Richmond and Lynchburg Rail-road, the Virginia and Tennessee Road, the Georgia and Alabama Road, the Alabama and Tennessee River Road, the Selma and Jackson Road, the New-Orleans and Jackson Road.

3. *For Kentucky.*—The Memphis and Louisville Road, the Louisville and Nashville Road.

4. *For Tennessee.*—The Memphis and Louisville Road, the Memphis and Charleston Road, the Louisville and Nashville Road, the Nashville and Southwestern Road, and the roads embraced in the "National Route" above referred to.

5. *For Alabama.*—The Mobile and Ohio Road, and the roads embraced in the "National Route" referred to.

6. *For Georgia and Florida.*—The Gulf Road, or a continuation of the Southwestern Road of Georgia to Pensacola Bay; the Florida and Peninsular Road.

7. *For Mississippi.*—The Mobile and Ohio Road; the New-Orleans, Jackson and Nashville Road; the New-Orleans, Holly Springs and Ohio Road; the Vicksburg and Jackson Road, extended by Brandon eastward to Selma.

8. *For Arkansas.*—The Arkansas and Mississippi River Road, from Fort Smith or Van Buren to Little Rock, and thence to White River, and there diverging to Memphis and Helena. A road from Fayetteville to Van Buren; and one from the Central Rail-road, leaving the same near the St. Francis Ridge, through Jackson and Independence counties to southwestern Missouri. A road from Little Rock to the Louisiana Line, to intersect with the New-Orleans and Opelousas Rail-road. A road from Northeastern Texas to Little Rock, crossing Red River at or near Fulton.

9. *For Louisiana.*—The New-Orleans, Algiers, Texas and El Paso Road; the

Madisonville and Jackson Road; the Vicksburg and Shreveport Road; the New Orleans and Nashville Road.

10. *For Texas.*—A road from a point on the northeast part of the state (connecting with the Little Rock and Fulton Road,) to run on the dividing ridge of the Sulphur and Red River to the ridge between Bois D'Ark and Sulphur; thence to Dallas, and to connect with the New-Orleans and El Paso Route. The continuation of the New-Orleans, Opelousas and El Paso Road through Texas.

11. *For Missouri.*—The road from St. Louis westward; the Hannibal and St. Joseph Road.

On motion of Mr. Burwell, of Virginia, the resolution and schedule of railroads submitted by the Committee on Routes, were taken up *seriatim.*

The resolution and first section of the schedule were then taken up and unanimously adopted.

The second section being under consideration, Mr. J. R. Anderson, of Virginia, offered an amendment to conciliate several delegates, which was rejected.

Mr. Wm. Campbell, of Kentucky, offered an amendment, which was adopted, proposing a route from Paducah, at the mouth of the Tennessee River, to the Tennessee State Line, to intersect the road from New-Orleans and Mobile.

On motion of Mr. H. L. Hyams, of Louisiana, the resolution and schedule offered by the Committee on Routes were taken up, as amended, and unanimously adopted.

The following, offered by Mr. J. R. Anderson, of Virginia, was passed:

Resolved, That, as the sense of this Convention, a railway and water communication across the Isthmus of Tehuantepec is of national importance, and especially so to the whole Southwest.

Mr. J. S. Hays, of Mississippi, presented the following resolutions for Mr. E. L. Acee, of the same state, and moved to lay them on the table till 6 o'clock, P. M., which motion was carried:

Resolved, That the connection of the Southern Atlantic seaboard with the Pacific Ocean, by means of a rail-road, is a great American measure, of commanding national importance, and worthy of governmental favor and assistance.

Resolved, That the highest commercial and political considerations imperiously demand the early construction of this important national highway; and that in the opinion of this Convention, the Congress of the United States cannot make a more just and judicious disposal of the public domain lying within the south of California, than the appropriation of a large and liberal portion of the same for the completion of this great undertaking.

Resolved, That it is the sense of this Convention that the most eligible and practicable route for said rail-road is from San Diego, or San Francisco, on the Pacific coast, by way of El Paso, to the State of Texas.

Resolved, That a committee, composed of one delegate from each state represented in this Convention, be appointed by the President of the same to draft a memorial to Congress, setting forth the advantages and practicability of said proposed road, and asking the appropriation of fifty millions of acres of the public lands, lying in the State of California, for the construction of this great Southwestern railway.

Resolved, That three persons be appointed a committee by this Convention to present said memorial to Congress during its present session, and urge before that honorable body the early consideration and adoption of such measures as will secure, without delay, the accomplishment of this truly national enterprise.

The following preamble and resolutions were offered by Mr. W. S. Campbell, of Louisiana:

Whereas the City of New-Orleans is the great commercial entrepot, not only of Louisiana but also of the states of the great valley drained by the Mississippi River; and whereas the States of Arkansas, Mississippi, Texas, and the others within said valley, have as direct an interest as Louisiana, in the facilities afforded to both the foreign and domestic commerce, which naturally seeks New-Orleans as an emporium for barter, distribution, or export; and whereas, the maritime outlet of the products and importations of the Southwest is within the jurisdiction of the State of Louisiana, and, as a consequence, all goods and commodities exported and imported through that channel are effected by her laws, which may encourage or impede the growth, commercial prospects, military strength and political power of the States of the Valley of the Mississippi, thus rendering her morally responsible to them for the passage of such laws as will encourage, enlarge and strengthen the commercial and social interest of this vast section of the confederacy; therefore, be it

Resolved, That this Convention, representing the states interested, respectfully but earnestly request the Legislature of Louisiana to repeal and abolish all laws, either statutory or constitutional, they have enacted, which may be in conflict with the spirit of the foregoing preamble, and that they will adopt such other laws as may be necessary to promote harmony of action and unity of effort on the part of the Southwestern states in constructing such a great system of rail-roads as will facilitate their intercourse with their natural commercial emporium; and that the Legislature, in such manner as their wisdom may designate, do promote the immediate construction of great trunk rail-roads, leading north and west from New-Orleans, upon which the various branch rail-roads of this and other states may be engrafted.

Mr. T. G. Morgan, of Louisiana, moved to lay them on the table; but, before the question was put, the Convention adjourned until 6 o'clock, P. M.

FRIDAY, *January* 9, 1852.

EVENING SESSION.

The Convention met at 7 o'clock, P. M.

Vice-President A. Fowler, of Arkansas, in the chair.

Mr. T. G. Morgan, of Louisiana, withdrew his motion of this morning, to lay the resolutions of Mr. W. S. Campbell on the table, and made a motion that they be adopted, which was unanimously carried.

The acting President announced the following committees appointed by the President, A. Mouton, before he left the city:

Committee to memorialize the legislature of Mississippi under Mr. Walter's resolutions—Col. H. W. Walter, of Holly Springs; Hon. Stephen Cocke, of Aberdeen; Col. John Duncan, of Grenada; Col. C. S. Tarpley, of Jackson; Gen. E. L. Acee, of Yallabusha, Miss.

Committee of three to address Congress and the Legislatures of the several Southern, Western, and South-western states, under the resolution offered by the Committee of Ways and Means—James Robb, of New-Orleans; C. S. Tarpley, of Mississippi, and A. Fowler, of Arkansas.

Committee on Major Ranney's resolution, adopted in the morning—J. H. Ranney, of Louisiana; Philip G. Weaver, of Alabama; John Martin, of Arkansas; M. Landrum, of Florida; Mr. Campbell, of Kentucky; Stephen Brown, of Mississippi; Mr. Chouteau, of Missouri; Mr. Brinckley, of Tennessee; J. T. Mills, of Texas; Mr. Burwell, of Virginia.

The following resolutions were presented by Mr. Henry Chouteau, of Missouri:

Resolved, That the obstructions to the navigation of the Upper Mississippi, caused by the Des Moines and Rock River rapids, are such as to require the immediate action of Congress.

Resolved, That the obstructions to the navigation of the Ohio River at the falls near Louisville, Ky., and the canal around them, need immediate improvement.

Resolved, That the enlargement of said canal, to meet the wants of commerce, deserves the serious and prompt action of our National Legislature.

Resolved, That the Senators and Representatives in Congress be, and they are hereby requested, to bring this subject to the consideration of Congress.

Mr. Isaac E. Morse, of Louisiana, opposed the resolutions. Mr. Hymes supported them. Mr. Chouteau offered an additional resolution in favor of improving the mouths of the Mississippi. Dr. Estes, of Louisiana, offered a resolution in favor of removing the raft in Red River. Mr. Walter, of Mississippi, though in favor of the objects of the resolutions, thought they would injure the objects of the Convention, and moved that they be laid on the table. The vote by states was called, and resulted as follows:

Yeas—Arkansas, Florida, Kentucky, Mississippi, Tennessee, Texas and Virginia—7.

Nays—Georgia and Missouri—2.

Mr. T. G. Morgan, of Louisiana, presented the following preamble and resolutions, and made a motion that they be spread on the minutes, which was carried. [Will be published in another place.]

The following was presented by Judge Campbell, of Louisiana, who moved that it be spread on the minutes, which was adopted: [This is a letter from Gov. A. V. Brown, of Tennessee, which will be published in another place.]

The following preamble and resolutions offered by Mr. J. M. Landrum, of Florida, were adopted: [Will appear in another place.]

Mr. M. B. Sellers, of Louisiana, presented the following, and on his motion, the Secretary was directed to spread it on the minutes. [Will appear in another place.]

The resolutions of Mr. E. L. Acee, of Mississippi, presented this morning, were then taken up, and on motion of Mr. Albert Pike, of Arkansas, laid on the table—Gen. Acee being too ill to discuss them.

The following resolution, offered by J. D. B. De Bow, of Louisiana, was unanimously adopted—viz.: requesting Mr. Burwell, of Virginia, to furnish a copy of his able speech for publication.

Mr. H. W. Walter, of Mississippi, presented a resolution, requesting Mr. Robb's speech for publication, which was unanimously adopted, and also offering the thanks of the Convention to Messrs. G. Burke, A. D. Crossman, Mouton, DeBow and Tarpley, of the General Committee, for their assiduous and laborious services.

Mr. J. D. B. De Bow, of Louisiana, presented the following resolution, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the thanks of the Convention be tendered to Lieut. M. D. Maury, of Washington City; Col. Abert, of the Topographical Engineers; Hon. Edward Bates, of Missouri; Roswell Beebee and Mr. Martin, of Arkansas; Col. Philips, of Alabama; William Gregg, of South Carolina; and Gov. Brown, of Tennessee, for the able and instructive communications addressed by them to the Convention on the objects of its meeting, and that the same be published in the reports of the Convention.

The Convention adjourned *sine die*.

J. Calhoun, of Louisiana,
John Duncan, of Mississippi, } *Secretaries*.
R. C. Farrelly, of Arkansas,

The Correspondence, Debates, &c., of the Convention, will be published in our next—illustrated (if we can) by an improved Rail-road Map to date. The one we issued last August, though the best then published, contained several errors and omissions. This could not well have been avoided.—[Ed.

APPENDIX TO CONVENTION PROCEEDINGS.

No. I.

PROJECT OF A RAIL-ROAD FROM VICKSBURG, VIA MONROE AND SHREVEPORT, THROUGH THE INTERIOR OF TEXAS, SUBMITTED BY THE DELEGATION OF NORTHERN LOUISIANA.

REPORT.

This road has been projected for the purpose of developing the northern part of the State of Louisiana, and the northern, eastern, and middle portions of Texas, securing this trade to the city of New-Orleans, and to add another section to a great national road. It will pass through a tier of parishes in this state, containing over four millions of acres of rich, fertile land, fully equal to the best lands in the world for the growth of cotton. The whole of this land is arable, with the exception of a comparatively inconsiderable portion subject to annual inundation. These parishes now produce about 130,000 bags of cotton. Without the aid of a rail-road this amount is not likely to be increased. Indeed, nothing but the unsurpassed fertility of the soil could sustain their present population, in the absence of any other means for getting their produce to market, and obtaining their supplies, than is afforded by small streams of water, unnavigable for many months in the year, and which, at best, meet the demands of a very limited portion of the country in question. Take, as an illustration of this statement, the parish of Caddo, which is more favorably situated for navigation than any other of the northern parishes. For several months during the year just closed the good people of this parish have been six weeks from New-Orleans "in due course of mail." Flour has been selling at $12 per bbl.; Bacon, 16 cts.; Sugar and Coffee, 12 and 14 cts.; Lard, 25 cts.; and other family supplies in proportion. Merchants have hauled their goods from the Mississippi, in wagons, and commenced selling them about the time their bills, for the purchase of them, began to fall due. Other goods, purchased for the Shreveport market, have been met at New-Orleans, shipped up the Mississippi, and opened at various points on that river, in markets unsuited to their quality, and forced sales made to sustain, if possible, the credit of the purchaser. The whole cotton crop of the parish is at this time under shelter at the gin houses, or locked up in the warehouses at Shreveport, waiting a rise in Red River. These extravagant prices—these ruinous delays—this unnatural course of trade, and general derangement of business calculations, return upon us with the regularity of the business seasons, and must continue to recur so long as our only dependence is upon the uncertain navigation of Red River. Even with all these disadvantages, the fertility of the soil in this parish has induced its rapid settlement. The Indians were removed so late as 1839, and the same year the lands were offered for sale by the government. The parish now contains six thousand slaves. Fifty thousand acres of land have been brought into cultivation; and she will send to market this year, as the produce of her own soil, twelve thousand bags of cotton. Shreveport, which is marked out by its geographical position as the centre of trade, not only for this parish, but for a vast extent of country to the west of it in Texas, has a population of twenty-five hundred inhabitants, and is the second place in the state in point of commercial importance. The trade between Shreveport and New-Orleans already amounts to several millions. But the planters of Caddo parish, and the enterprising merchants of Shreveport, are struggling against adverse circumstances, under the weight of which they must finally yield, unless some scheme is devised for their relief. There are 191,000 acres of uncultivated land in this parish, held by private citizens, and a large amount still unsold by the government. When a fair proportion of this shall have been brought into cultivation, Caddo parish will send one hundred thousand bags of cotton to market. The limits of this report do not permit a detailed statistical statement of each of the parishes through which the road is projected; and we have selected Caddo, because it is about an average parish in size, present wealth, and production—and because more favorably situated than most of the other parishes; the facts, in regard to it, demonstrate the absolute necessity of a rail-road communication with the Mississippi to its continued prosperity. Other parishes, as Bossier, Claibourne, and Bienville, equally fertile in lands, are still more isolated in position, and must remain almost wholly undeveloped and worthless to the state, unless aided by rail-road communication. This road would speedily develop this whole region of country; and if built, it is a very moderate and sober calculation to say, that within six years these parishes would send New-Orleans 400,000 bags cotton. But the fertility of the soil and the trade based upon its produce, are not the only elements of wealth this road will develop. Contiguous to the route are large and extensive forests of valuable pine timber. Upon the water-courses which unite to form the D'Arbane, and those which empty into the Dugdemonia, and Black Lake waters, &c., are good water privileges, which may be used to propel machinery. This country is not, therefore, likely to remain entirely rural, but extensive manufactories will spring up along the road, and add another element to the wealth and prosperity of our state. These advantages, so feebly set forth, might be deemed sufficient to engage the attention of this Convention, and secure its favorable notice; but the project looks beyond the limits of our own state, and proposes to penetrate the heart of Texas between the 32d and 33d parallels of latitude, to open up the vast resources of that immense country, and secure to ourselves the advantages which always flow from enlarged views and a liberal policy. Here are thirty organized counties, partially settled, covering as many thousand square miles, and containing not far from twenty millions of acres of land. These counties produce at present about 50,000 bags of cotton. More than half of this is grown in six of these counties, most conveniently situated to the navigation of Red River. The other forty-four counties are engaged chiefly in the stock business, and exported during the past season not far from fifty thousand head of beef cattle, and twenty thousand head of sheep. This business has been found profitable, and is rapidly on the increase. To this may be added for peltries $200,000, and $30,000 for beeswax. Some of these counties are erecting mills, and already produce considerable quantities of flour, which, however, is consumed in the country. To find a market, this flour is hauled two and three hundred miles in wagons. Northern Texas is one of the best wheat growing countries on the continent. The average crop is said to be thirty bushels per acre of a very superior quality. And it is worthy of remark, that, aided by the construction of the contemplated rail-road, this country would put down flour in New-Orleans one month earlier than it is possible for any part of the country to do, from which she now draws her supplies. The importations of goods, groceries, and family supplies, into this country, may be determined by the amount of their exports. The wants of this people are so urgent, that their purchases have no other limit, than their ability to pay. In these estimates we have confined ourselves to those counties in Texas—the northern boundary of which reaches beyond the 32d degree of latitude, and which are pretty well advanced in settlement. To our other estimates should be added, a trade carried on with the southern portion of the Indian nations, which now finds a channel through Red River, and amounts at present to about $200,000, and is susceptible of a large increase. If we look to the extent of this country, and its capabilities of future improvement, we shall see that it can no longer be neglected, unless we are determined to lie down in idleness and poverty, in utter disregard to the sources of wealth which the bounty of Providence has placed within our reach. Probably no other spot upon the globe, of the same extent, contains so large a proportion of rich and fertile land as the region of country of which we are now speaking. The road will scarcely pass over a section of land that will not reward the labor of the husbandman and contribute to its business and support. Who can calculate the future of this country, and tell what it shall be, when its productive resources shall have been fully developed by a judicious system of railways? We have not even mentioned all the known sources of wealth which it contains. In some of the counties are extensive quarries of limestone, mines of salt, stone-coal, and iron ore; and not far beyond the western limit of the country indicated, are mountains, said to abound in the precious metals, silver, gold, and platina. The natural advantages of this country are becoming more generally known; and there is, in consequence, an immense tide of emigration pouring into it the present season; and not only is the number of emigrants very much increased, but they are of a better class, and take with them a much larger amount of negro property. So that the population, wealth, produce, and trade of this country are increasing in an arithmetical ratio. A very large proportion of the cotton grown in these counties is sent to this city at an average cost of $4 per bag. In most of the counties the cost of transporting cotton to market so far exceeds the profits of planting that it is not attempted; and should the present low prices continue, and the building of this road be delayed a few years, planting will be abandoned, and the negroes removed near the Gulf in western Texas. These people receive their supplies at the same heavy cost for transportation, and this double tax necessarily makes them very small consumers.

There is another view which the undersigned have taken of this route. It is projected on the same line of latitude with Charleston, Montgomery, Vicksburg, Monroe, Shreveport, Marshall, Dallas, El Paso, and San Diego. If ever the Atlantic is connected with the Pacific by railway, it must be upon this line. No other route presents so few obstacles, or combines so many advantages. It is central in geographical position, crosses the continent at the narrowest point, is far enough south to avoid the snows and frosts of winter, and far enough north to strike the rivers which empty into the gulf at practicable crossings. It will best accommodate the different parts of the country: and to it cities, and states, north, east, and south, must all come, who seek to connect themselves with the trade of California. When the connection shall have been formed between Jackson and Montgomery, this great central road will be connected with all the principal cities in the United States: and, like the great central artery of the human body, it will infuse life and vigor into every one of its branches, and animate with health the remotest members of this great confederated body of states. The section of this route, which more immediately engages the attention of the undersigned, is deemed entirely practicable. Steps have been taken to procure a survey of the route; but as this has not been done, we are happy to be able to lay before the Convention the opinion of Professor Forshey, given in the correspondence below.

"New-Orleans, *January 5th*, 1852.

"Dear Sir,

"You are informed that the friends of internal improvement in the northern part of Louisiana, have projected a rail-road from Vicksburg across the state, by way of Monroe and Shreveport. The information which has been collected, leads the friends of the road to believe that no great difficulties present themselves on the route, and that taking the whole line together, it will be an easy one. You are also aware that, by orders of the government, a route has been surveyed, quite recently, from Lake Providence to Fulton, and it is understood a low estimate has been made of the cost of this road. I believe you once surveyed the route to Alexandria, a little lower down than Monroe. You also have intimate knowledge of this whole region of country.

"Will you be good enough to inform me what is your opinion of the practicability of the proposed route? And, if it will not trouble you too much, furnish a rough estimate of the probable cost of the road?

"Have the friends of this enterprise selected the best route to cross the state, and develop the resources of the northern parishes? Or is there any better or more practicable route?

"Your early attention to this is solicited, and will much oblige the undersigned, and many, the friends of internal improvement in our state.

"Very respectfully, &c.,

"C. G. Young."

"Carrollton, La., *January 6th*, 1852.

"Dr. C. G. Young,

"Dear Sir—Your note of yesterday is at hand, asking my opinion in regard to the practicability of constructing a rail-road from Shreveport, on the Red River, to Vicksburg, on the Mississippi, via Monroe on the Ouachita.

"The questions you ask I shall answer, as I suppose, of course, they were intended purely as a professional matter, without entering into questions regarding its utility, which are, doubtless, better understood by yourselves than I could present them.

"I answer as to practicability, that there is on the whole route nothing approaching very near to the impracticable.

"This line would be 180 miles long, and would keep within ten miles of the same parallel, namely, latitude thirty-two degrees thirty minutes, all the way.

"Commencing on the east bank of Red River, opposite to Shreveport, the best route would cross the Bayou Bodcau, below the lake, two or three miles, and pursue a line, nearly direct, to Minden, on the Dauchete: thence deflecting a little northward, to avoid the broken lands about the head waters of the Black Lake Bayou, it would pursue the summit ridge nearly due east, between the waters of the D'Arbonne on the north, and the Dugdemona and Castor on the south; and without crossing a single stream large enough to have a name, in 75 miles, would reach the Ouachita river, opposite Monroe, in precisely the same latitude with Shreveport.

"From Monroe, the best line would continue eastward, not far from the township line of T. 7, 8, north, crossing the Lafourche Bayou and Boeuff River, a little south of the extreme south corner of the Bastrop Grant, the Bayou Macon, and Joe's Bayou, in the middle of T. 7, and thence run along the bank of the latter to the nearest bend of the Tensas river: along the bank of the Tensas, and across its bend, the line would cross that river at or near the north line of T. 6, and the Roundaway Bayou at Richmond, north of the mouth of Walnut Bayou; and thence eastward, the line would reach the river bank, on the Mississippi, at some place between Young's Point and the estate of General Dunlap—thence it would keep near the bank of the river to a point opposite Vicksburg.

"The greatest difficulties on this route are not in the construction of a railway track upon firm ground, without any considerable excavation or embankment. This may be done at the minimum, or near the minimum cost of railway construction. The abundance of timber on the way at nearly every portion of the line, and the slight grades required, give ample assurance of this.

"The true difficulties consist, first, in the bridges or crossings of several large streams; and, second, in the character of the overflowed region to be crossed.

"1st. There will be five first class bridges to be constructed on the route; and if built in such substantial manner, as are common on similar streams, they must cost a sum equal to about six miles of road each; and three bridges of the second class, equal each to two miles of road, which may be estimated in all as increasing the cost of the whole road above the minimum, a sum not less than $350,000.

"The next difficulty is a much less one as to increased cost. It would require that the road should be built on tressel-work, through the Lafourche swamp, through Bayou Macon and Tensas swamps, a distance which I cannot venture to name without an actual survey.

"But this necessity results from the direction of the route, which is at right angles to the trend of the alluvial planes, and hence across the drainage. Continuous embankments cannot be constructed without manifest injury to the drainage of the country.

"Tressel-work, for elevations of 3 to 6 feet, would increase the minimum cost of the road about 20 per cent. per mile, for the number of miles so constructed. It is a vague estimate, but I suppose that $50,000 would be a sufficient sum to meet this contingency.

"According to this estimate, it may be assumed in general terms, that

180 miles, rail-road track, culverts and stations.............	1,800,000
8 bridges, first and second class..........................	350,000
20 miles tressel-work, &c.	50,000
Total probable cost of the road.........	$2,200,000

"I must beg, my dear sir, that you will take these as crude opinions, based upon a very good knowledge of the country, true, but without any surveys upon the route you designate: and I would not be willing to have these opinions arrayed against any others resulting from careful surveys in the future, made by myself or other competent engineers.

"Very faithfully your obedient servant,

"Caleb G. Forshey,
"Civil Engineer."

The government of the United States is interested in a most direct and unmistakable manner in the construction of this road. Its treaty stipulations with Mexico, and its obligations to protect its own citizens, require a line of military posts to be kept up on the frontiers of Texas and Mexico. Five regiments of soldiers are now stationed upon these lines, and the number will probably be increased this winter to eight. The transportation of supplies to these stations will make a heavy drain upon the treasury of the United States, and render indispensable a considerable increase in the appropriations for the army. From data furnished the undersigned from reliable sources, they have been enabled to form such estimates as to place it beyond doubt, that the mere freight and transportation of supplies to these stations will cost the government more than a million of dollars annually. We are aware that this statement will startle persons unacquainted with the difficulties of the country. But the estimate is below the actual cost. The Secretary of War mentions that more than forty dollars has been paid on the transportation of a barrel of flour. In one instance the government engaged a man to haul supplies from St. Antonio to El Paso, at $16 50, who threw up the contract as a bad bargain.

There are other ways in which the federal government will be profited. With the facilities which the road would afford for concentrating her forces, the country may give its citizens a far more efficient protection with a reduced number of soldiers. Indeed, a rail-road would develop a population which, in a few years, would supersede the necessity of keeping up these stations at all. This was the effect in our own state of opening the navigation of Red River. More than this, the same population would become consumers of imported goods, paying duty, and thus the road will augment the revenue of the government, at the same time that it lessens its expenditures. The people along this road are alive to the subject. Enthusiastic meetings have been held in many of the parishes in northern Louisiana, and the counties mentioned in Texas, in all of which the people have passed resolutions in favor of its immediate construction. In addition, large conventions have been held in Shreveport, Monroe, Marshall, and Palestine, in which delegates representing quite a number of parishes and counties have conferred, and united in giving expression to the public sentiment. Such is the state of feeling upon the subject, that private citizens have offered to donate a portion of their land to secure the building of the road. In submitting this report, the undersigned would conclude it by recommending the construction of this road, as important to a numerous people, inhabiting a large and extensive region of country, prolific in sources of wealth, situated in northern Louisiana, in middle, western, northern, and eastern Texas. That it is important to the city of New-Orleans, as opening a channel through which she may secure to herself almost the entire trade of the country in question—a trade which at present amounts to several millions, and which is susceptible of an indefinite increase. The interest which the undersigned feels upon this subject induces a pause here—to observe that the position which New-Orleans now occupies, in regard to this trade, is one of peril. Unless some artificial means be devised to facilitate and cheapen transportation to and from that portion of this country lying west of Shreveport, its entire trade will soon be diverted into other channels.

We have reason to believe that Texas will look with favor upon this route. It has already been mentioned that a large number of her most populous counties have held meetings and passed resolutions in favor of it, and instructed their representatives accordingly. We have also reason to believe that Texas will not permit her territory to be penetrated by a rail-road on the east, south of the 32d degree of latitude, and she will look with indifference upon any project that does not connect her by a direct line with the Mississippi River. To do this, the road must cross Red River at Shreveport, for there is no other practicable crossing for more than three hundred miles. A road through the extreme northern portion of Texas, to Little Rock and Memphis, might, indeed, cross the river at Fulton. This road has already been spoken of. It is an important route, and will, no doubt, ultimately be built, but it can never compete for the transportation of cotton with a road running to Vicksburg. But to return. The information already given in this report, touching the nature of the country through which it shall run, shows this road to be important to the city of New-Orleans, as opening up to her a new and abundant source, from which she may supply herself with beef, mutton, flour, and other articles of living, of a superior quality, at reduced prices, whereby she may greatly cheapen the expenses of living of her citizens, and reduce the price of fare at her hotels and boarding-houses, which will operate to produce a rapid increase of her population, both transient and permanent. This road is important to the state of Louisiana, because it will procure the settlement of four millions of acres of her vacant land, and add within a few years twenty millions to the amount of her taxable property. It is important to the federal government, because it will save her half a million annually in the cost of transporting supplies to her soldiers on the frontiers of Texas and Mexico. Finally, this road is deemed important to all sections of the country, as forming a part of that great central trunk, which shall belt the continent, and with which all other roads on the continent must connect, to perfect the system.

C. G. YOUNG,
Chairman of the Delegation from Northern Louisiana.

No. II.

THE COMMITTEE TO WHOM WAS REFERRED THE QUESTION OF A SYSTEM OF RAIL-ROADS FOR ARKANSAS, BEG LEAVE TO REPORT—

Arkansas, in point of territorial extent, is larger than any southern state; Texas alone excepted, embracing in its limits an area of over 50,000 square miles, or 33,000,000 of acres. Her soil is one of unsurpassed fertility; the northern portion of the state, from its climate, being admirably adapted to the production of provisions, with the capacity to produce them to an unlimited extent; also embracing a belt of mineral region, rich in anthracite and bituminous coal, lead, zinc, copper, gypsum, manganese, silver and gold—needing only an outlet by rail-road to the Mississippi River, to make it a more profitable mining district than California itself, while the southern part of the state is safer for heavy crops of cotton than any other portion of the South. This is established, beyond all question, by years of experience;—further south, the crop has become a precarious one, from casualty produced by the caterpillar, boll worm, grub, or cut worm. West, there is not rain enough more than one year in four, and in other states of the same parallel east, the soil is exhausted.

But Arkansas, with all that Nature has done for her, is far behind her neighbors in improvements, population, and general prosperity. It is a source of humiliation to your committee to make these acknowledgments; but the truth should be told, "though the heavens fall."

The cause of this state of things, to the intelligent resident of Arkansas, who has understood her general state policy, is no mystery. She was admitted into the Union prematurely, before she had the basis of wealth and population upon which to raise a revenue to support a state government; consequently she was forced to resort to some financial scheme to raise the deficit. The State and Real Estate Banks were chartered, and the endorsement of the state placed on $3,500,000 of their bonds; they both suspended in the general crash of 1837; and since then have not more than managed to keep the debt down to the original amount. This constitutes the state debt of Arkansas, and the whole is set down as state liability. The state is undoubtedly liable for the entire debt; but there is still a valuable asset in the banks, consisting in notes, and in bonds and mortgages on large tracts of the most valuable lands in the state; and should these lands be affected by rail-roads, as lands have been every where else, there is but little doubt that before the maturity of the bonds in 1862, the debt will be paid by the bank asset. At present valuation they would pay the debt down to $1,500,000. This, then, is the actual debt of the state—an amount for which she is at present unable to provide, but insignificant when viewed prospectively, and can easily be provided for, after a correct system of rail-roads shall have developed our vast natural resources.

As yet, private enterprise has done nothing efficient towards a system of rail-road; and the state, as shown above, is not in a condition that her credit can be made available, as in other states, to assist in projects of improvement. But an awakening spirit, on this subject, has recently manifested itself; and the important inquiry is heard on every hand, cannot Arkansas do something towards a general system of rail-road improvement?

Private enterprise and capital stand ready to act to the full extent of their ability; yet in the present advancement of Arkansas this is not sufficient, at least so far as capital is concerned, to prosecute to completion the system necessary. The only resources we have in addition are from capitalists in other states, and the liberality of the general government in making donations of lands for rail-road purposes. We think we present more than ordinary claims on the government, in our proposition to point our improvements toward the Indian country. These Indian tribes are under the protection of the government; large quantities of specie to the amount of millions, have annually to be transported at great risk, and frequently at heavy expense, (land carriage having to be used,) to pay the Indian annuities—besides troops and munitions of war have to be sent there to keep in proper subjection the turbulent spirit of the various tribes. Besides, a direct line of rail-road, penetrating the Indian country, would do more to civilize and Christianize them, than millions spent in the usual missionary efforts. With this view, we see the general government is directly pecuniarily interested in our rail-roads, as well as philanthropically, and possesses the same interest in ours that she does in the roads running through other new states. A donation for so much land on each side of the road, with the privilege of floating for it, would enable Arkansas to do much towards completing her roads.

In the selection of a starting point on the Mississippi River, we find central on the eastern border of the state the high lands touch the Mississippi at Helena; and it is a fact that may not be generally known, that this is the only point from Cape Jeridon to the Balize, where the high lands touch the Mississippi on its western bank. And by reference to the operations of the states on the east bank of the Mississippi, we find that all their rail-roads point to the bluffs for their termini: instance Memphis, Vicksburg, Natchez, and other places. This, of itself, is conclusive that high land points ought to be selected for our termini, in preference to swamp and overflowed ones, when they can be had.

Then, if we adopt Helena (the only practicable place) as the starting point of our system, we find the projected road from there to Little Rock to pass over a plain country, already a grade above overflow, (with the exception of four miles of White River bottom,) rich and fertile, with timber of the best kind for the superstructure, and with no cost for the right of way. Taking this as the first section of the main trunk for the system for Arkansas, we know of no road, in the South or West, that offers such inducements to capitalists for safe and profitable investment. This road, a distance of 110 miles, can be constructed with a T rail of 58 lbs. to the yard, at a cost of $1,000,000.

We think we risk nothing, when we base an estimate on 30,000 through passengers the first year; this, at $6 each, gives us $180,000, with the certainty of an annual increase to an ultimate extent that now baffles calculation.

When we take into consideration the large extent of country that will send its produce to market over this road, and receive in return its merchandise, we at once set down the freight receipts as more than sufficient to pay the expenses and repairs; giving the receipts from passengers as profit, making 18 per cent. on the investment. And when the contemplated extensions and laterals are constructed, it will pay to an extent that ought to satisfy the most avaricious. It will also possess the advantage that, for years at least, it can have no rival. The enormous cost, and uncertainty in investment, over an overflowed bottom, will prevent any rival route from being constructed, giving to this the benefits of all the trade and travel of northern, western, and southern Arkansas; also, of south Missouri, northeastern Texas and the Indian country, without saying anything of its being a part and parcel of the great Southern Pacific Rail-road.

From Little Rock an extension should be made to some point on Red River to meet the Texas roads pointing east—also, another from the same place, by way of Van Buren to Fort Smith, to be ultimately extended into the Indian country—a country of vast extent, and possessing, according to the report of Lieutenant Marcy, the elements to make it, in proper hands, one of the finest agricultural countries that God ever made. And however much the philanthropist may regret it, he can but see that this vast region must ultimately be possessed by the white race!—be brought into cultivation, and made to play its part in support of civilization. The Indians will be forced to retire to the vast plain country of the west—a country peculiarly adapted to their migratory, hunting dispositions.

At some point, a few miles west of White River, a branch ought to leave the main trunk, and following up the waters of the White River, and crossing it at or near Batesville, continue a north course, running through the fine agricultural and mineral region of North Arkansas and Southern Missouri. This will constitute the system of main trunk roads for the state. So soon as they are completed, branches will be run out at various points, tapping the different basins, and giving to each section of the state facilities of direct rail-road communication with the Mississippi River.

Objections have been urged against Helena as the eastern terminus, for the system for Arkansas, because it does not communicate directly with the roads now in process of construction from Memphis to the southern Atlantic cities. This objection is found, on investigation, to be trivial in its character, for to all those wishing to communicate with Memphis they are offered an uninterrupted navigation, for first-class steamers, from Helena to Memphis, which can be run in five hours, making a difference of time between Little Rock direct to Memphis, and by way of Helena and the river, of not more than three hours.

By way of New-Orleans is the natural outlet for Arkansas products; and when other things are equal, her artificial lines of communication (as as her rivers do) ought to point to New-Orleans. With her, Arkansas is allied by contiguity, association, and similarity of institutions, and nothing but the most perfect apathy on the part of New-Orleans can dissever this unity of interest; but without New-Orleans will take hold and act liberally, the southern Atlantic cities will unite Arkansas with them by iron bonds, and then hold her as in the hooks of steel. Memphis, Nashville, Charleston and Savannah: and last, though not least, Mobile, is beginning to bid for Arkansas trade, by proposing the construction of roads to cross the Mississippi at Memphis, and even 100 miles above these; and if New-Orleans sleeps on a few years longer, she may awake, but it will be with a spasmodic effort, and she will quickly relapse again into the sleep of death, as in that time all the elements of her vitality will be taken from her by her more enterprising sisters, Mobile, Savannah, and Charleston.

Should it be found necessary at any future day to connect the Arksansas roads directly with the roads east of the Mississippi, it can be done at much less expense by crossing the river at Helena than at any other point, and connect with the New-Orleans and Nashville road at Holly Springs, Helena being on nearly an air line from Little Rock to Holly Springs. The difficulties of crossing the bottom opposite Helena are less than at any other point, in the knowledge of your committee.

In conclusion, your committee, feeling that all the statistical information necessary to stimulate the southern states to action, will go before the country in other reports upon roads, exciting now more attention if not of more ultimate utility, and through the address that this Convention will send forth, will only in a few words urge the importance of prompt and efficient action upon the rail-road subject in all sections of the South.

Our glorious confederacy has just passed through a critical period of her history. But recently the elements of discord were aroused and excited to a degree that made the heart of the patriot to quail: but by the combined effort of the distinguished men of both parties in Congress, oil was poured on the troubled waters, and peace and harmony were restored to our threatened and distressed country. But the struggle should learn us a lesson, and prompt us to go to work, and render ourselves independent of the North, and in no way can we do this so effectually as by opening all the artificial lines of communication, that may be necessary to develop our country. On the heels of our roads manufacturing enterprises will spring up, and then we may proclaim our independence. We will be dependent on the North for nothing; the North will be dependent on us for our cotton and sugar; and as we always treat freemen as freemen, we will treat our fellow-citizens of the North as brothers of the same great confederacy; they having no power over us, will have no motive to treat us in any other way. Then we can live together in peace, and go on to demonstrate the great problem of man's capacity for self-government, and let our example have its influence on the rotten monarchical governments of the old world: and there exert, by the moral of our course, an influence beneficial to the freedom of the world.

All of which is submitted.

JOHN MARTIN, *Chairman.*

Therefore, *Resolved*—That the rail-road system we have proposed for Arkansas, is a necessary link in the chain of the system for the South; and that from the direct as well as incidental benefits that the general government must derive by the construction of a part of the main trunks, that her aid is especially invoked by this Convention, in a liberal donation of lands, to be granted directly to the companies that are or may be formed for their construction, and that her usual course of donating only the public lands on the line of road ought in this instance to be deviated from, and the privilege granted of floating for quantity, on any of the public lands in the state.

No. III.

RAIL-ROADS IN PROGRESS OF CONSTRUCTION, AND PROJECTED, IN MISSOURI.

The Atlantic and Pacific Rail-road (being a continuation of the rail-roads from Boston, New-York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and other cities on the Atlantic coast, westward through the states of New-York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois) commencing at St. Louis, on the Mississippi River, and running thence south-westwardly to the western limit of the state of Missouri, with the expectation that the same will be continued across the plains to California and the Pacific Ocean.

The Hannibal and St. Joseph Rail-road, connecting with Chicago and the Great Lakes, commencing at Hannibal, on the Mississippi River, and terminating at the town of St. Joseph, on the Missouri River, with the expectation that the same will be extended so as to intersect the Atlantic and Pacific Rail-road.

These two roads have been commenced under very favorable auspices, and are now in progress of erection.

The Missouri Central Rail-road, commencing at St. Louis, and running north-westwardly to Jefferson City, Boonville and Lexington, on the Missouri River, and extending to the town of Kansas at the mouth of the Kansas River, with the expectation that the same will intersect the Atlantic and Pacific Rail-road.

The Iron Mountain Rail-road, commencing at the city of St. Louis, thence to the Iron Mountain, in a southern direction, and continuing in that course to intersect like improvements in the state of Arkansas, in order to connect with the Southern Pacific Rail-road.

The South-western Rail-road, commencing at the city of Cape Girardeau on the Mississippi River, to the city of Boonville on the Missouri River.

HENRY CHOUTEAU,
Delegate from St. Louis, Missouri.

New-Orleans, 6th January, 1852.

No. IV.

FLORIDA.

Whereas Georgia, with her vast system of internal improvements, has already stretched her iron lines to within a short distance of the Chattahoochee—and a bill is now before the legislature of that state to insure the completion of the South-western Rail-road from Macon to Eufaula, Fort Gaines, or other point on said river; it is therefore expedient that, to complete the chain of roads from the seaboard of the Atlantic to the Gulf, a line commencing at the point at which the South-western Road will terminate, running thence to the waters of Pensacola Bay, should be established.

The distance of this proposed railway is about 140 miles, passing through the counties of Barbour, Pike, Covington, and Conecuh, in Alabama, and Santa Rosa in Florida, over a country admirably adapted for the purpose.

There are no large streams to cross; and the lands, for a great portion of the way, require but little grading—it can, therefore, be built at less than the ordinary cost of roads in the South. The advantages to be derived by New-Orleans and the states bordering on the Gulf, from the completion of this road, are great.

A daily line of steamers, from the terminus to the city, would bring a great portion of the Atlantic and Pacific travel hither—the cotton-growing region of Alabama, Florida, and Georgia, in the vicinity of the route, would make this their great mart; in return, they would receive the products of Louisiana, and those of the broad West; therefore New-Orleans would be benefited by this route, and the roads which she proposes strengthened by the connection. The link, to complete the chain, could be made; and the states bordering on the Gulf would feel the benefits of its influence, before other more extended routes can be completed. It would open a district of country, where lands are now comparatively valueless, which would be of great advantage to our national government.

Government, having spent millions for the naval station at Pensacola, should encourage this enterprise, as it will be found necessary to secure every facility for her great improvements. The power possessing the harbor of Pensacola, as a rendezvous in time of war, holds complete control over the trade and commerce of the Gulf. Hence, a vast amount has been wisely expended in constructing fortifications at the entrance of the bay, and that point must ever be one of great importance in time of war. And as the

South-western Rail-road of Georgia have determined to seek a continuation of their line to some point on the Gulf of Mexico—

Therefore, be it *Resolved*, That the projected road from the terminus of the South-western Road of Georgia, to the waters of Pensacola Bay, would greatly promote the interests of the South, and receive the cordial sanction of this Convention.

2d. *Resolved*, That we earnestly recommend to the favorable consideration of the national government, this railway, as one which will be highly important to the naval station at Pensacola, and to the security of the increasing commerce of the Southwest.

3d. *Resolved*, That the members in Congress, from the several states, are solicited to use their efforts to obtain suitable grants of the public domain for this connecting link between the Atlantic and the Gulf, and for all similar purposes of pub lic enterprise and improvement.

No. V.

BATON ROUGE PROJECT.

Whereas, at the South-western Rail-road Convention, held in the city of New-Orleans in the month of April, 1851, a report was made by the committee on plans and projects, in which it is stated that "the distance from New-Orleans to Jackson via Pontchartrain Rail-road, Lake Pontchartrain and Madisonville, is 173 miles, of which distance about 30 miles will be steam ferry. By the located line of the old Nashville Rail-road, the distance is 192 miles. By a route recently surveyed by Mr. Phelps, passing above Lake Maurepas, the distance will be about 200 miles; and by a proposed line up the river to the vicinity of Baton Rouge, the distance from New-Orleans to Jackson will be about 213 miles. The latter route avoids difficult swamps, extensive draw-bridges across navigable streams, and passes through a fertile and well-improved country. The majority of the committee are of opinion that the road via Baton Rouge may be constructed in the most substantial manner from New-Orleans to Jackson for two millions of dollars, and that the shorter lines would not cost materially less. The cost of the road from the state line of Louisiana to the town of Jackson will be the same on either route, and may be estimated separately at one million of dollars!!"

And whereas the said proposed route presents advantages, certainly not to be overlooked, in entering upon a vast sytem of internal improvements, in which it is confidently expected all the energies of the state and of the people of the state will be promptly and efficientlyenlisted;

These advantages being—

1st. That throughout its whole course such road will pass through a densely populated and fertile country, the inhabitants whereof are not only able but willing to contribute liberally for the formation of the road.

2d. That by touching the Mississippi at the city of Baton Rouge, easy and speedy communication can at all seasons of the year, and under all circumstances, be had with the city of New-Orleans.

3d. That in the event of an overflow of the River Mississippi at any point between the cities of New-Orleans and Baton Rouge, a rail-road, whether passing the latter place, or diverging from the River Mississippi, so as to cross the River Amite near its entrance into Lake Maurepas, or to cross the pass between Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain, must be liable to destruction, or at least to great damage; and therefore it is highly desirable that the road now proposed to be constructed should touch the River Mississippi at a point not liable to inundation, in order that there may under no circumstances be any delay or interruption in the transportation of passengers and freights to New-Orleans.

4th. That by extending the road from New-Orleans to Baton Rouge, along or near the bank of the River Mississippi to Baton Rouge, it will have the advantage of passing over the highest lands, avoiding swamps, and not liable to any obstruction or damage from overflows, not common to the other routes proposed.

5th. That the route via Baton Rouge, passing from that place towards the city of Jackson, Mississippi, over a comparatively high country, free from swamps, not traversed by large streams, and at the same time not requiring excavations or embankments to any considerable extent, can be constructed at less expense than one passing through a low country, where many and extensive swamps must be encountered, and several navigable streams must be bridged.

6th. That the corporation now proposed to be created, can avail itself of the work done by the Baton Rouge and Clinton Rail-road Company, which consists in opening the proposed route about thirty miles or upwards, cutting off the timber a width of one hundred and twenty feet, preparing the road for laying the superstructure for about fourteen miles, digging out all stumps and sorts, cutting ditches on each side of the road, and throwing the earth into the centre, so that at the present time the superstructure can be laid for that distance without any considerable expense, and the course of said road being on a direct line towards Jackson, Mississippi.

7th. That passing through the populous, fertile, and productive parishes of East Baton Rouge, and East Feliciana, in Louisiana, and the county of Amite, Mississippi, each mile of the road would produce revenue as soon as it is constructed.

8th. That the inhabitants of the parishes of East Baton Rouge and East Feliciana will promptly and cheerfully contribute a sum sufficient to construct such road through their borders, the evidence of which is the fact that, after the adjournment of the Convention, held in April last, near one hundred thousand dollars was subscribed by the inhabitants of Baton Rouge and its vicinity in three days, and no doubt thrice that amount can readily be obtained, should the road take the course indicated.

9th. That there being no obstruction to navigation between the cities of New-Orleans and Baton Rouge at any season of the year, the passengers and the produce of the counties through which a road is proposed to pass, would at all times reach the great commercial metropolis of the South-west without detention, and without any additional expense.

10th. That the difference in distance between the route passing to the west of Lake Maurepas and that passing by the city of Baton Rouge, will not exceed twenty miles, and the expense of construction will not exceed that of the shorter lines.

One other view, we conceive, may with propriety be presented to your consideration. By taking the route we propose, the road will reach a point on the River Mississippi opposite the Bayou La Fourche, and from thence may be constructed the great road leading through the parishes situate on that Bayou, and thence through the counties of Attakapas and Opelousas to the Sabine River, at such point as may meet the desires of Texas. By so doing we will avoid the interruptions that may occur by breaches in the levee on the west bank of the river below the Lafourche, and save the expense of constructing many miles of road. If to this it is objected, that all passengers and freights must be transported across the river at Donaldsonville, the reply is, that if the road is continued on the west bank of the river to Algiers, still you must cross it to reach New-Orleans, and the expense and delay of crossing at the one point cannot be greater than at the other. We all concede that New-Orleans is, and of necessity must be, the great commercial mart of the South-west and West. We do not, therefore, seek to supplant her—we seek to enter into no invidious rivalry with her, but we do seek to conduce as much as possible to her advancement, considering that by so doing we advocate our own best interests.

Therefore be it resolved,

1st. That the Committee on Routes be instructed to take the said route into consideration, and report thereon.

2d. That in the opinion of this Convention it is of vital importance to construct a road by which the River Mississippi can be reached at a point, between which and the city of New-Orleans there are no obstructions to navigation, and which would insure a safe, speedy, and cheap transportation of passengers and products to the city of New-Orleans at all seasons of the year, and without danger of delay from inundations of the alluvial country, by the breaking of levees, or the opening of the Bayou Manchac.

3d. That it will be the true policy of the state of Louisiana and of the city of New-Orleans to construct the proposed rail-road through a country, practicable, populous, fertile, and wealthy, rather than through a difficult, sparsely-populated, and unproductive part of the country, even although the distance and expense may be somewhat increased.

Respectfully submitted on behalf of the delegation from East Baton Rouge, by

THOMAS GIBBES MORGAN.

No. VI.

MISSISSIPPI ROUTES.

The undersigned begs leave to submit to the General Committee on Routes, the following report in support of the resolutions offered by him to the Convention in relation to a system of railway running from the city of New-Orleans through the State of Mississippi.—It cannot be doubted, that the system proposed by the resolutions, when completed, would not only be of incalculable benefit to the citizens of Mississippi and Louisiana, but would also afford to the city of New-Orleans a full and complete communication with all the rail-roads east of the Mississippi River. The undersigned believes that he cannot do greater justice to the present condition and general importance of the Brandon and Montgomery Rail-road, than was done it in a report made upon the subject, by a delegation of the citizens of Vicksburg, at the R. R. Convention, held in this city in April last. That delegation stated, "that this road is to extend from Jackson, Mississippi, to Montgomery, and will connect at Selma with the Alabama and Tennessee River Rail-road, by which, and the roads now under contract, and in contemplation, a continuous railway communication will be opened through Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio, with the lakes; and through Tennessee and Virginia, with the Atlantic and northern states, and at Montgomery will connect with the rail-roads running east through Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina. It will pass in the state of Mississippi entirely through the counties of Rankin, Scott, Newton, and Lauderdale; and in Alabama, before it reaches Selma, one of the termini of the Alabama and Tennessee River Rail-road, it will pass through Sumter, Marengo, Perry, and Dallas counties. Nearly all these, and the contiguous counties, both north and south, now haul in wagons their cotton and other articles of export to the Tombigbee and Alabama Rivers, and ship thence to Mobile. The counties of Sumter, Marengo, Green, Perry, and Dallas, produce annually about 150,000 bales of cotton, all of which now goes to Mobile, but much of which will probably be turned to New-Orleans by means of this road. In fact, nearly all the products of East Mississippi and Western Alabama, and their supplies for that region of country, will probably find their way on this road, and the branch extending through the north-eastern part of Mississippi. The southern route then will become the great thoroughfare of northern and eastern travel. It will develop the mineral resources of North Alabama. Its rich and inexhaustible mines of iron are now worked in spite of the difficulties of getting to a market; and it will create and open a way to trade, the vast extent of which cannot be too highly estimated. We think it within bounds to assert, that 200,000 bales of cotton will come over this road, and the branch extending through the north-eastern portion of Mississippi to New-Orleans, not one bale of which now ever reaches it. Detailed estimates, made by an engineer who has surveyed the route from Brandon to the Alabama line, of the amount required for the completion of the road that far, are in our possession, and may be set down in round numbers at one million of dollars. If New-Orleans were to pay the whole cost of building the road that far, it would return to her in the increase of trade alone, without estimating the other advantages, a handsome profit upon the investment. But there are inducements to render the stock of this road valuable, that are not presented to any other rail-road in the United States. From Jackson to Brandon—fourteen miles and a-half—the road is completed and in profitable operation. These fourteen and a-half miles, with the cars, locomotives, fixtures, depots, town lots, &c. attached to the road; sixty choice and picked negroes; the two per cent. fund now on hand, being about $12,000, and that which may hereafter be received, now the property of the State of Mississippi, and valued on a careful estimate by the President of the Southern Rail-road, including the grading east of Brandon, at $378,000, are all offered by a recent act of the legislature, as a bonus for the organization of this company, and the completion of the road to the Alabama line in six years. This act was passed in 1850, and provides that the whole property shall come into possession of the company so soon as twenty miles of the road beyond Brandon shall be finished. To organize the company requires a subscription of $500,000 of stock, with a cash payment of $50,000, immediately upon which the company becomes the owner of nearly half a milion of valuable and active property. This statement shows of itself a conclusive inducement to take stock in this road, and renders it absolutely certain that it will be valuable."

Your undersigned fully concurs in the opinion expressed in the foregoing report, that this road is of incalculable importance to New-Orleans. By it, so soon as the Jackson and New-Orleans Rail-road is completed, an inland highway of commerce and travel is at once effected between New-Orleans and the whole of the south-eastern portion of the United States; by it an immediate junction is effected with the great system of rail-roads in Alabama, Georgia, and South Carolina. By this road, in connection with the Selma, the Hiwassee, and South Valley rail-roads, New-Orleans will find her most direct and speedy route to the whole of the north-eastern and eastern portion of the Republic. By it a connection is made with the Nashville and Chattanooga Rail-road, and thus will New-Orleans be placed in immediate contact with Louisville, Cincinnati, and the lakes. Your undersigned does not deem it necessary to add more upon this subject, than simply to say, that a large portion of the stock in this road has already been taken by citizens of Mississippi, and that a little assistance from New-Orleans will, in a short time, place the work, throughout its whole length, in process of construction.

In reference to the New-Orleans and Nashville road, the undersigned can add but little, if anything, to what has already been said or written in its favor. For nearly twenty years this road has been *the* favored project of New-Orleans, Nashville, and the intermediate points. It has enlisted to its support the talent and ability of the states of Louisiana, Tennessee, and Mississippi. But its advocates might now find in this Convention the most forcible and *visible* argument in its favor that could possibly be presented. The seats prepared for the delegates from Nashville, Cincinnati, Pittsburg, and St. Louis, are now vacant. They speak in mute eloquence to the reason and judgment of this Convention. They seem cold and cheerless, like the icy chains that hold back their occupants. A warning whisper is heard from them to this city, and they tell her that the greatest exporting commercial emporium of the New World may well fear for her future destiny, when the winter's frost or the summer's drought can bar her from the sources of her wealth and power. New-Orleans has listened to this warning, and she is sensible of the importance of this work. This road would bring to this city, for the present, more commerce and traffic than any other branch of her contemplated system of railways. It penetrates one of the most extensive, rich, and fertile portions of the State of Mississippi. The commerce of the Tombigbee valley, along which this road will run for a considerable distance, is worth more than ten million of dollars annually. This valley, with all its wealth, population, and resources, is now the forced tributary of Mobile. The construction of this road will give to that commerce a new direction, and place it upon the wharves of New-Orleans. Not only is the commerce of this section of country considerable, but it presents inducements for the construction of a road that can scarcely be found in combination on any other route. Its population is wealthy, industrious, and public-spirited. Its prairie surface is so level, that grading would scarcely be required for some seventy miles. Nature seems almost to have prepared it for the superstructure of the railway. New-Orleans must certainly be false to her best interests, if she neglects this road thus piercing a country, presenting an inviting surface for its track, wealth to construct, and commerce to support it. What has been said of Mississippi may with equal propriety be applied to Tennessee. This road would penetrate the wealthiest section of the latter state. It would call back to this city the highly valuable commerce of Middle Tennessee, which is now seeking a market at Charleston. The cotton, wheat, tobacco, provisions, and mineral products of that section of the country, would be transported over this road, and with the cotton and trade from Mississippi, would actually add to the commerce of New-Orleans, in value, not less than twenty millions of dollars annually. Much of the light but valuable commerce of Nashville, about to pass by Chattanooga to Charleston, will be retained for your city. The merchant and citizen of Nashville must find a more speedy and *certain* route to his exporting and importing city than that afforded by the uncertain navigation of the Cumberland River. If this road is not constructed, Nashville will inevitably turn her attention to Charleston. The construction of the Nashville and Louisville Rail-road will complete the link in this great chain that will place the commercial tributaries of Lake Erie within the influence of New-Orleans. By this road, and the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, New-Orleans can become the successful rival of New-York and Boston, and call back the millions of commerce that has left her for these cities.

This road will pass through the eastern portion of the manufacturing country of the Central West, and bear over its track a large portion of the products of the spindles and looms that must soon be found there. Whilst the undersigned believes, that the commerce of this road would be highly valuable as a source of revenue to the road, he is satisfied that the travel upon the road would be not only an inexhaustible source of revenue, but would contribute greatly to the wealth of New-Orleans. Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, large portions of Tennessee and Mississippi, would send their population over this road to this city. The man of business or pleasure, from the eastern and north-eastern Atlantic seaboard, *whilst in the West*, would find here his speediest and safest route to New-Orleans. By means of the railways extending to and circling Lake Erie, Boston and New-York would be placed within some three days' journey of the wharves of this city. By this road, and the railways projected and constructed across the mountains, our citizens would be speedily and safely transported to Washington, Baltimore, and Philadelphia. What would be the effect of all this upon New-Orleans? Her now vacant houses would be filled with active tenants. Her shops would be crowded with the talent and beauty of other states, who would spend millions in the city, and give to her additional thousands of active and industrious citizens. New-Orleans would cease to be the mere distributor of the wealth and commerce of other ports. She would become a *producing* city; and the manufacturer, the mechanic, and the artisan, would join with the merchant and the banker to enrich and populate the city of his adoption.

In reference to the rail-road proposed in the resolutions, running from Canton northwardly and centrally through the state of Mississippi, the undersigned will give some deductions made by him from reliable statistical information now before him. The citizens of Mississippi, living upon the line of this road, have evinced during the past year a deep interest in its construction. They have ascertained the length of the road to be about 173 miles, and that the cost of its construction and equipment will not exceed one million seven hundred and fifty thousand dollars. The number of bales of cotton grown in the counties through which the road passes was, in 1850, one hundred and fifty-seven thousand four hundred and eighty-eight bales. The population of the counties amounts to 124,231. It is estimated that not less than 93,031 bales of cotton will pass annually over the road. The income derived to the road from this source alone, at an average cost of 95 cents for transporting each bale, is $86,379, which, with a return freight of like amount, would yield annually to the road $176,758, for freights alone. This estimate is based alone upon the conveyance of cotton and return freights, exclusive of the products of the dairy, the farm-yard, the orchard, and the infinite variety of commercial products, which would be raised in a section of country so highly favored by nature as Central Mississippi. At some point on the northern boundary line of Mississippi this road would cross the Memphis and Charleston Rail-road; and whenever this is effected, the number of passengers that would annually pass over the road could not fall short of 50,000. The undersigned is satisfied from the statistics before him, that this road would yield a nett revenue, derivable from the sources above indicated, of not less than thirteen per cent. upon the capital invested. Such would be the results from this road, were it never extended beyond the connection with the Memphis and Charleston Road. It is not, however, designed by the friends of this measure that it shall stop short of some point on the Ohio River near Cairo. Who can then estimate its importance and value? It is estimated that in 50 years *one hundred million of souls will people the* MISSISSIPPI *valley*. To the *heart* of this great empire this road is to penetrate. It will there connect, intersect, or cross all the arteries and trunks of that stupendous system of railway, extending from the Atlantic seaboard to the great West. Every important city of our republic is stretching forth its iron arms to this point, and to this point is this road to be directed. It will rob the Mississippi of the half million of human beings that are annually borne on its surface. At the mouth of the Ohio will be given the traveler a choice as to the mode of his transit to your city. Who can doubt as to his choice between the "floating palace" and "the flying car?" The expense will be the same, but expedition, safety, and comfort, will all range themselves with the locomotive.

Not only will the travel over this road be great, but the commerce upon it will be almost invaluable. But little is yet known of the resources and wealth of the Central West, but that little promises a complete revolution in the manufacturing world. On the banks of the Ohio, the Wabash, and the Illinois. will be found the spindle and the loom, that will rob Manchester and Lowell of their strength. Food is found there in the greatest abundance, and cheaper than any point in the known world. The coal bed of the Central West will yield inexhaustible quantities of fuel at a price of half the cost of the same article at Manchester or Lowell. Water for dying is found as pure as that of the Mersey or the Merrimac; madder, the principal ingredient for coloring purposes, can be grown there as cheaply and abundantly as any point in the world; quercitron and sumac are abundant; fine clay and stone for building is inexhaustible; and last, but not least, cotton can be delivered there at 15 per cent. less cost than at either Liverpool or Boston. These are not the only advantages which this region will possess. In a few years an immediate and direct communication will be opened by railway with every important city on the Atlantic seaboard, giving her facilities of placing in her factories the few light articles not found there, and of sending to all parts of the country the products of her spindles and her looms. How can Lowell meet and vanquish this competition? She obtains her cotton from the interior of the Mississippi Valley, through New-Orleans. Her coal is dug out of the mountains of Pennsylvania. Her food and flour are carried from the great grain-fields of the North and Central West. Her dye-stuffs are imported from Europe and South America, and then the product of her looms are sent for distribution to the very points from which she draws her cotton and her food, her flour and her coals. England and New England, the mother and the daughter, must yield forever the sceptre of manufactures to the sons of the Central West. From this point, over this road, through New-Orleans and across the Isthmus, must pass the fabrics that will clothe the millions of Asia. Who can doubt, then, the importance of this road to New-Orleans?

The undersigned does not deem it necessary to say anything in relation to the benefits which would be conferred upon the sections of country through which these roads would respectively run. This point is daily discussed by both people and press, and the benefits to all classes of citizens fully understood. In the construction of the system of roads, presented by the resolutions, the state of Mississippi is deeply and vitally interested, and aid from her will be necessary for their completion. It is believed that aid will be furnished from her ample internal improvement fund.

The foregoing report is respectfully submitted to the General Committee on Routes.

Most respectfully, your obedient servant,

H. W. WALTER.

No. VII.

LOUISIANA ROUTES.

TO THE COMMITTEE ON ROUTES.—

GENTLEMEN: I beg leave to submit a project for a rail-road leading from Shreveport, Louisiana, to terminate at Lake Providence, Louisiana. A project having been already submitted for a rail-road from Shreveport, by Dr. Young, to intersect the River Mississippi at Vicksburg, I should not now trouble the Committee with another report, starting at the same point, did I not believe the terminus of the contemplated road bad, and illy advised, probably taken without being in possession of, or not having maturely considered, all the facts in relation to this road.

I will not attempt to impress the committee with the importance, the great necessity, and value of this road, as that has been so ably and eloquently done already by the chairman of the Committee of North Louisiana, on the road above referred to; therefore I shall only attempt to show the great propriety and advantage of giving this road a different route and terminus, and my reasons for so believing.

I will first state that, so early as 1824, the great necessity of a road to the Mississippi, for the convenience of the inhabitants of the northern parishes of this state was discovered, and engaged the anxious attention of the legislature; an Act was passed appointing commissioners, living at different points on the Mississippi and on the contemplated route, who were thought to be the best acquainted with the country through which this road was to pass, to review and report the best route for a road from Monroe, Louisiana, to the nearest, best, and most acceptable point on the Mississippi River. This committee, after a laborious and faithful examination, reported a route terminating at Lake Providence. This road, according to that report, was cut out, and the cost paid by an appropriation from the state.

2d. In 1848, I believe, the legislature still feeling the importance of this road, and not satisfied with what it had done to forward the developments of the resources of this part of the state, or promote its interest, passed an Act requiring the state engineer, Col. Wooldridge, to examine three routes from Monroe, for a road, to intersect the river at Vicksburg, Milikin's Bend, or Providence, and report. Col. Wooldridge, after having examined the three routes *carefully*, reported in favor of Providence. This report I have endeavored to obtain, that I might submit it with this, but have not been able to find a copy in the city. The report was made to the legislature, and of course will be found at the seat of government.

3d. The interest felt in this road has not been confined to the State of Louisiana alone. Congress, in 1849 or '50, made an appropriation for the survey of routes from the Valley of the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean; under that appropriation W. H. Sidell, with an appropriate corps of engineers, proceeded to examine the country that lies between the Lower Mississippi, in Louisiana, and the great bend of the Red River in Arkansas. (Capt. Sidell's report is herewith submitted.) This report relates immediately to this route.—Although this survey was made to intersect the Red River at Fulton, the same ground will be passed over by a road from Lake Providence to Shreveport, so far as Farmersville, as though it went to Fulton. The road from Farmersville will be much cheaper and easier made than a road from Farmersville to Fulton; the farther south you go, after leaving Farmersville, the lower the hills, and of course fewer and shallower cuts to be made.

4th. This road is now, and has been, for four or five years, traveled by thousands of emigrants, and passed over by wagons and every description of carriages. This fall, five wagons, on an average, per day, have loaded at Providence with merchandise, bound to Shreveport, Bastrop, Farmersville, and other places contiguous to this route; cotton has been hauled to Providence in considerable quantities, from all the above named places, to Providence.

5th. The route which I am contemplating, will pass, as nearly as practicable, on a straight line from Shreveport to Providence, passing through, and running contiguous to, the parishes of Bossier, Caddo, Claiborne, Jackson, Union, Washita, Morehouse, and Carroll, in Louisiana, beside several counties in Arkansas and Texas, which would be accommodated by this road; thereby affording the greatest facilities to the greatest numbers of any other route contemplated.

In conclusion, I would remark, that the feeling on the subject of this road is very intense in all the northern part of Louisiana and Southern Arkansas—that meetings have been held, and delegates appointed to this Convention—proceedings of meetings in the parishes on this line of route I have seen published; and I would be glad if I had them, that I might present them to your honorable body, as the delegates themselves, by the very low stage of water and bad roads, have been prevented from being personally present.

I have been able to find but the report from Union parish, which is herewith submitted; also, the remarks of the Minden Herald on this subject. Many other reasons could be given to show that this route possesses advantages over all other routes from Shreveport to the Mississippi River; also the great interest felt in, and preference given to, by the inhabitants of Northern Louisiana, this route over any other; but, unwilling to tax your patience any further, and believing that I have said enough to induce your favorable notice of this route, I submit this report without any further remarks. All of which is respcctfully submitted.

☞ This road will be from 150 to 160 miles long.

M. B. Sellers,
Delegate from Parish of Carroll, La.

Having read the above report, I fully concur with it.

J. H. Brigham,
Delegate from the Parish of Morehouse, La.
J. T. Henderson,
Delegate from Union Parish, La.

New-Orleans, January 9, 1852.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

C. S. TARPLEY, OF MISSISSIPPI.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 15.

IT has been our purpose, in this series of biographies, to select from each of the states such citizens as are most distinguished for their advocacy of leading public improvements, as manufactories, commerce, agriculture, rail-roads, etc., and upon the last ground we have taken Col. Tarpley. To him the South-west owes a great deal. He was the very first, we believe, to project the contemplated rail-road from Jackson to New-Orleans, which has been enlarged into a great programme of improvements, embracing the whole state of Mississippi, and terminating only at Nashville, or near the mouth of the Ohio. We are a witness of the fact, that when his series of papers was published through the press, advocating the road, he was ridiculed or abused, as a dreamer, or an interested land-holder. It was common to sneer at a rail-road through the piney woods, dependent for its support upon tar, turpentine, and ashes! Even New-Orleans turned a cold shoulder to the movement, which she now regards as her salvation and her future fortress. When Col. Tarpley came to the city, what public man or leading citizen was willing to commit himself to the project? Feeling the deep interest that we did, we took him around to test the prevailing opinion. Every one would have himself excused. One had invested in Tehuantepec stock, another was a director in the Mobile road, a third could not see what we wanted with rail-roads, with the river at our very doors. The majority agreed that *nothing could be done;* and this was the sort of cheer that we gave to the large Mississippi delegation who came down to meet with us in Convention; but who, seeing not a single leading citizen take a seat in the body with the slightest interest, went away swearing terribly against our two per cent. a-month capitalists.*

However, times have changed, and the stone which the builders rejected has come to be the head of the corner. The despised beginnings are having glorious fruitions. Look at the late immense rail-road gathering in New-Orleans, and then ask if bread is ever thrown upon the waters in vain? Whilst we give credit to other able and distinguished gentlemen who have been so active in these matters of improvement, it is but a sheer act of duty to remember favorably the early services of Col. Tarpley. The Rail-road Convention appreciated these services when it called him to preside over its organization.

Col. Tarpley was born in Virginia, in 1802, of parents who had been reduced to great poverty; and who emigrated to Tennessee, in 1808, where his mother, an intelligent and strong-minded woman, added to the family support by teaching school. His early education was at Cumberland College, and afterwards at Harpeth Academy; though when the family removed to Giles County, so straitened were its circumstances, that he had to forego education, except such as night studies would afford, and labor throughout the year in the field at the hardest drudgery.

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* The valuable series of papers contributed by Col. Tarpley upon the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road, were afterwards thrown into pamphlet form, and largely circulated. We also extracted from them in the Review, and have intended sometime or other to republish them in full. Col. Tarpley was one of the committee of five appointed to get up the South-western Rail-road Convention in New-Orleans, and took the field in Mississippi in its favor, making a great many most effective speeches.

When he was relieved of this, in 1819, he was enabled to attend school during winter; but as it was five miles from home, he was in the habit of carrying blankets and provisions on Monday morning for the whole week, studying at night by the blaze of faggots, in utter loneliness, and sleeping upon the hard floor! By these assiduous and unremitting toils he succeeded in keeping at the head of all the classes in Latin, logic, rhetoric, mathematics, etc., and winning high encomiums on every side, and the first honors.

After teaching school for one year, as a financial shift, Col. T. entered the law office of the late James K. Polk and Gov. A. V. Brown, who were at that time partners in business. These gentlemen afforded him great aid in his studies, and even pecuniary assistance, for which he has never ceased to express a proper gratitude. In this manner three years were passed, or at least the winters, for during the summer he found it necessary to undergo physical labor upon the farm, for the support of his father's family, which, by the way, he continued to do for several years, after his admission to the bar, until he had placed them in a position of comfort and competency. We believe, even to the present day, he has provided for quite a large family of sisters and brothers.

Col. Tarpley was associated in 1828, or 1830, in partnership with the Hon. John McKinley, afterwards one of the Judges of the Supreme Court of the United States, but removed to Mississippi, in 1836, where he very soon entered upon one of the largest law practices ever known in the South-west, and by which he has accumulated a large fortune. In the spring term of 1838, his partner, Judge Taylor, and himself, instituted one thousand suits, one-half of which were in the Federal Courts, and of necessity over $500 in amount each. His present business is very large, and almost entirely confined to the Supreme and Chancery Courts.

On the resignation, a short time since, of the Hon. Wm. L. Sharkey, Chief Justice of the state, the office was tendered by Governor Whitfield to Col. Tarpley, and accepted, though he resigned it shortly afterwards.

With the political opinions and views of Col. Tarpley we have nothing to do in our Journal, selecting, as we do, our subjects from both sides indiscriminately. In this arena of politics we doubt not that he has made his enemies—quite as many, perhaps, as other men. With them we leave him to fight out his battles, and without doubt he will find foemen ready armed and worthy of his steel.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—U. S. TREASURY REPORT, 1852.

Mr. Corwin has at last handed in his voluminous report, which we regretted was not in hand when noticing the other departments last month.

The report opens with a detailed statement of the receipts and expenditures of the government during the year to June 30, 1851, and the estimates for the year to June 30, 1852, which have been before noted. A table is given, showing the increased expenditures ($9,549,080 12), on account of our new territorial possessions, towards which a liberal policy is recommended, as they will ultimately amply repay the present expenditures by permanent and powerful augmentation of the national wealth; add for the ordinary expenses of the government, as per estimates, $33,343,219 07, and we have the sum of $42,892,299 19, as the total estimated demands upon the treasury for the next fiscal year, leaving (the report says) an estimated balance in the treasury, on the 1st of July, 1853, of $20,366,443 90. This sum, it is believed, will be ample to meet the amount required on that day for the redemption of the loan of 1843, then due, of $6,237,931 35, and such additional appropriations beyond the estimates submitted as may be made during the present and next session of Congress.

The table of the public debt is then given, and the pith of the report, including important recommendations by Mr. Corwin on the subject of the tariff, the iron interests, &c., succeeds, as follows:

We proceed to make a few extracts from the body of the report.

The unexpected addition to the boundaries of our country, covering an area of more than five hundred and twenty-six thousand square miles, has, without doubt, been one cause of the large and sudden increase of our foreign importations, and consequent increased receipts from custom duties. Our expenses consequent upon such acquisition, have more than kept pace with the increase of receipts, and they will remain permanent charges upon the treasury. Revenue to meet these required expenditures must be provided for, and that during a period when our public debt is maturing. It cannot for one moment be thought advisable to presuppose a renewal of any portion of such debt, and therefore it should be our aim to obtain revenue sufficient to meet these maturing liabilities, in addition to the annual expenses of the government.

The receipts from all sources for the last fiscal year amounted to....	$52,312,979 87
The appropriations to........	51,428,414 49
Being an excess of receipts of	$884,565 38

The estimated aggregate receipts for the current fiscal year are placed at $51,500,000. The expenditures, as estimated and appropriated, amount to $50,952,902 59, being an excess of estimated receipts over estimated expenditures of $547,097 41.

The receipts for the next fiscal year are estimated at $51,800,000, the expenditures at $42,892,299 19, being an exess of receipts over expenditures of $8,907,700 81. Making an aggregate estimated excess of receipts over expenditures for the three years ending 30th June, 1853, of $10,339,363 63, subject, however, to a reduction to the extent of any appropriations which may be made for this or the next fiscal years additional to the estimates submitted.

Should Congress appropriate to meet the ordinary wants of the government, and to cover the expenditures required by our new territories, as submitted by this department, the balance, at the close of the fiscal year, ending 30th June, 1853, will be more than sufficient to meet the amount required on the 1st of July following, for the redemption of the public debt due that day.

The question presents itself, in view of the absolute necessity for a continuance of the present receipts from customs, whether in all the branches of the industry of our country there is that healthy and vigorous action which is the basis of substantial and lasting prosperity. Without this we can with no certainty presume upon any fixed amount of continuous receipts.

The gross exports for the last fiscal year amounted to $217,517,130; of which there was of specie $29,231,880, and of foreign merchandise re-exported $9,738,695, leaving as the exports of domestic productions the sum of $178,546,555. This presents a large increase upon like exports of any previous year, and exceeds that of the last fiscal year in the sum of $43,646,322. I regret that this increase is merely of an accidental nature, and likely to be confined to the year just passed.

For the year ending the 30th June, 1850, there were exported 635,381,604 lbs. of cotton, at an average value of 11¼ cents per lb., giving an aggregate value of $71,984,616, while 1,026,602,269 lbs. exported the year previous was valued at $66,396,967. For the year ending 30th June last, there was exported 927,237,089 lbs., — valued at $112,315,317, averaging 12 11-100 cents per lb.; thus exhibiting an apparent excess in the value of this staple alone, over that of the previous year, of $40,330,701.

The very deficient crop of 1849–50 caused an enhancement in the value of cotton of nearly double that of the previous year, and a still further advance upon the average price of the last year, thus giving the large excess in the aggregate value of the exports before stated. It must be borne in mind, however, that these values as reported are not always the prices realized on sales abroad. They are the declared values of the exports from our country, against which bills of exchange are usually drawn—and not the prices received on actual sales; and it is notorious that the immense losses on the shipments of cotton during the last year have reduced the amount actually realized by the sales in Europe very far below the official value in the custom-house returns. The crop of the present year has exceeded that of the last, and will, from its abundance, probably restore the aggregate value to near the average of previous years.

The exports of breadstuffs and provisions, in 1847, were $68,701,921; in 1849, $38,155,507; and in 1851, $21,948,653, which latter exceeds the exports of 1840, when the corn laws of England were in full force, only $2,881,118.

The exports of rice for the last fiscal year, as compared with the previous year, exhibit a decrease of $460,017, and that of tobacco a decrease of $695,834. The products of planting and agriculture for the past year have been unusually large. All Europe, with inconsiderable exceptions, has been blessed with like abundance; and without some unexpected disturbing causes, seriously affecting markets abroad, there is every reason to anticipate a still further decline in our exports for the coming year.

Our total imports for the last year amount to $215,725,995, producing a revenue of more than forty-nine millions of dollars. The balances of trade during that period, in addition to the large amount of the various stocks of the country, caused an export of upwards of twenty-nine millions of specie. The export of the precious metals still continues, and at a rapidly increasing ratio, having amounted already, in the first five months of the current fiscal year, to $27,594,263, which is nearly equal to the export for the entire year ending 30th June, 1851.

This increased ratio in the export of specie continues, notwithstanding the large supply of foreign exchange, predicated upon the shipment of the cotton crop, which is now rapidly reaching the sea ports at the South, and is of course going forward to European markets in very large quantities. When the bulk of this crop has been shipped, and the supply of cotton bills consequently diminished, the export demand for specie will of course be still further increased, unless there should be a very large falling off in the heavy importations of foreign productions.

With abundant and plentiful harvests, both at home and abroad; with a large excess in the production of cotton over that of the previous years, and its consequent decline in value; and with no evidences of any increased demand abroad for our general exports, the grave and difficult question of our ability to pay for these continued large importations presents itself for the consideration of Congress.

2.—ADVANCEMENT IN CALIFORNIA.

We have received from San Francisco a circular, which furnishes another evidence, that with the star of western empire, and almost at the same pace, travel the arts, the sciences, and the improvements of our countrymen. This circular announces the establishment of an Institute for the Promotion of Internal Improvements, and the advancement throughout the entire Pacific Coast, but more especially in California, of all the great interests of agriculture, commerce, horticulture, mining, manufacturing, and the arts and sciences. To an existing museum, it is proposed to add native specimens in mineralogy, botany, conchology, entomology, ornithology, ichthyology, etc.; inventions and improvements, and the rare products of the South Sea Islands, Asia, Australia, etc., for the purposes of distribution. An annual fair will be held, at which premiums will be awarded, and occasional public lectures and addresses delivered. Alden A. M. Jackson is the Actuary of the Institute.

3.—TO RAIL-ROAD COMPANIES.

We are happy to call the attention of rail-road companies to the advertisement of P. Chouteau, Jr. & Co., a house engaged in the purchase of rail-road iron, and in the sale of rail-road securities. The house have branches both at New-York and St. Louis, Mo. It is of the highest respectability, and the name of Mr. Chouteau, one of the partners, is well and favorably known throughout the South and West. Its means are ample; and we learn that its business arrangement with the well-known banker, George Peabody, Esq., of London, are such as to enable them to make negotiations for iron upon the lowest and most favorable terms, and to connect with the purchase of this article the sale of rail-road bonds.

4.—UNIVERSITY LECTURES.

Professors J. Lawrence Smith and Chilton, have been delivering a course of lectures in the hall of the university, upon subjects of chemistry and geology. These lectures have been experimental, in order to test the disposition of the people of New-Orleans to sustain such efforts for the promotion of science and knowledge. The price of tickets was put at a very low figure. The result, however, though honorable to these gentlemen, has not spoken very flatteringly for our city. Science at best is at a discount here, and those who would promote it must not expect the same success as tailors, blacksmiths, and bar-keepers. We learn, however, that Professor Smith has been secured as lecturer for the Lyceum, where his profound and extensive chemical researches and great skill as a manipulator will be brought into nightly requisition.

5.—NOTE TO SUBSCRIBERS.

The edition was not large enough to supply all of our subscribers with the January No., 1852, and we are obliged to reprint it. Those who have not received their numbers will receive a thousand apologies for an event which never occurred to us before, and we hope will never occur again. The numbers will be re-issued and forwarded to them within a month or two.

We have again to request our subscribers who are in arrears, to remit promptly, as it is only in this way that they can be just to themselves and us. Where agents call, we are taxed with a commission, which takes away the largest part of profit.

6.—EDITORIAL NOTE.

We would give notice to our subscribers and the public, that Mr. R. G. Barnwell, our associate in the editorial, etc., will continue his tour, with the view of extending the circulation of the Review. His valuable services, sound scholarship, and gentlemanly deportment, will recommend him to all who are interested in the success of this work, and the promotion of Southern literature generally.

DE BOW'S
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APRIL, 1852.
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ART. I.—COTTON AND COTTON MANUFACTURES.

> "First with nice eye emerging Naiads cull
> From leathery pods the vegetable wool:
> With wiry teeth revolving cards release
> The tangled knots, and smooth the ravel'd fleece:
> Next comes the iron hand with fingers fine,
> Combs the wide card, and forms the eternal line;
> Slow, with soft lips, the whirling can acquires
> The tender skeins, and wraps in rising spires;
> With quickened pace successive rollers move,
> And these retain, and those extend the rove;
> Then fly the spokes, the rapid axles glow,
> While slowly circumvolves the laboring wheel below."
> [*Darwin.*

It seems to be with historians as with mankind in general: they pay more attention to the vices, follies, foibles, and even the crimes of men, than to those things which constitute the elements of human happiness and human progress in civilization. This observation is verified by the fact, that most, if not all of the histories that have, until our own day, been written, are nothing more than elaborate recitals of the murderous exploits of military heroes; of the long and bloody wars that nations have carried on against one another; and of the intrigues, crimes, cruelties, vices and follies in which kings, queens, princes and wicked men and women have been engaged.

It is not until the present age, that history has begun to be written aright. It is not until now that historians have begun to discover that the real history of the world consists, not so much in an account of the wars and revolutions of nations, as in that of those products of the earth, and of those of man's ingenuity, which constitute the wealth of nations, determine their social condition and character, and shape their institutions and laws. The legitimate objects of the historian, are those things which build up a nation, and not those which pull it down; but unfortunately for the world at the present day, historians have ever fallen into the common error, by which the most important matters have been made to give place in their pages to the worst excrescences on the face of humanity.

If historians had taken half the pains to transmit to us knowledge of the state of the moral, intellectual, social and industrial condition of nations, that they have to convey to us accounts of the individual histories of wicked ambitious kings, and their bloody and devastating wars, and disgusting intrigues and crimes, the world would now be, probably, much farther advanced in civilization than it is. They have copied, for the edification of the world, all its past vices, crimes and follies, as fools copy those of the great about them; but they have left in utter obscurity and confusion all that was worth transmitting to posterity. It is easy enough to find out from historians what wars certain nations carried on, at the expense of the lives of millions, and what horrible crimes their kings and ministers committed; but we look in vain in them for any precise knowledge of the arts, sciences, and the industrial pursuits of any nation. If they mention these things, it is only by mere accident.

From this absence in historians of all systematic notice of the scientific, artistic, and industrial character of nations, men have been led to suppose that there was but little science or art among the ancients; while the more recent discoveries of our own times go to show that they had, even as far back as the ages of Homer and of Menes, carried many useful arts to a very high stage of perfection. We are now quite certain that the Egyptians, and probably the Ninevites and Babylonians, four thousand years ago, were skilful workmen, and carried on to a great extent many of those pursuits which, at the present day, constitute our most lucrative branches of industry. No thanks, though, to historians, save those who chose to write in hieroglyphics upon the gigantic temples and monuments that once adorned the valley of the Nile. What the pens of historians might so easily have transmitted to us, we have had to gather from the buried ruins of Nineveh and Egypt. From these, we have acquired more knowledge of ancient art than all that ancient chroniclers afford.

The scientific and industrial history of the world is at once the most important and interesting; but it is yet only written in part. A complete history of arts and manufactures, down to the present day, would be a vast undertaking, and would require, besides high descriptive powers in the historian, the highest order of scientific attainments.

In this paper we propose simply to sketch, as briefly as possible, the history of *cotton and its manufactures* from the earliest times to the present day. Of all the products of the earth there are few, or none, perhaps, that have exerted so powerful an influence on nations as *cotton.* Its history, therefore, cannot but be interesting and important; but unfortunately, although it can boast of high antiquity, we have only the meagre and careless traces of it for its early history, that are to be found amid the rubbish of ancient literature. Such, however, as these meagre traces are, we will endeavor to develop.

That the ancients were well acquainted with cotton, and used it extensively, cannot be disputed. Theophrastus, the Greek philosopher of Lesbos, wrote a work on botany, entitled Περὶ Φυτῶν Ἱστορίας, "On the History of Plants," in which he speaks of τα δένδρα εριοφορα, the wool-bearing plants—*the cotton plants*. Herodotus also speaks of ἔρια τα ἀπὸ ξύλων, which evidently means cotton. He is speaking of India, and the whole passage reads as follows: "The wild trees in that country bear fleeces as their fruit, surpassing those of sheep in beauty and excellence; and the Indians use cloth made from these trees. (Book 3, ch. 106.) Also in chapter 47 of the same book he says, that the thorax or cuirass sent by Amasis, King of Egypt, to Sparta, was "adorned with gold, and with *fleeces from trees*." What, however, Herodotus says of India, could not be from his own personal observation, since he did not, probably, extend his travels farther eastward than Susa, on the banks of the Choaspes. It is barely possible, too, that the cotton alluded to in the last quotation from that author, was only the down of the *bombax*[*] *ceiba*, a tree allied to the cotton plant.

The testimony of Theophrastus, the pupil of Aristotle, leaves no room for doubt. The expedition of Alexander the Great into India, furnished Aristotle and the Greeks with much exact knowledge of that distant region. The entire passage in Theophrastus reads as follows: "The trees from which the Indians make cloths have a leaf like that of the black mulberry, but the whole plant resembles the dog-rose. They set them in the plains arranged in rows, so as to look like vines at a distance." (Theoph. Hist. Pl. ch. 4.) In another part of his work on botany, he speaks of the growth of cotton in India, Arabia, and in the Isle of Tylos, in the Persian Gulf. Speaking of this island, he says: "The wool-bearing trees, (δένδρα εριοφορα,) which grew abundantly in this island, had a leaf like that of the vine, but smaller. They bore no fruit; but the capsule containing the wool was, when closed, about the size of a quince; when ripe, it expanded so as to emit the wool, which was woven into cloths, either cheap, or of great value." This is evidently an attempt to describe the true cotton plant, the *Gossypium Herbaceum*. Theophrastus wrote about 350 years before Christ.

Aristobulus, one of Alexander's generals, made mention of the cotton plant, as Strabo informs us, under the name of the *wool-bear-*

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[*] A genus containing many species of very large trees, whose capsules are filled with a fine cottony substance enveloping the seeds. It gives its name to the natural order, *Bombaceæ*, allied to the orders malvaceæ and sterculiaceæ, to the former of which the true *gossypium* belongs. The Bombax is associated with the celebrated Baobab, or Monkey's-bread, of Senegal, (Adansonia digitala,) some of the trunks of which are from sixty to eighty feet in circumference, and with many other of the gigantic tropical trees. The bombax trees are remarkable for forming on their sides huge buttresses, projecting so far from the parent trunk as to be capable of screening many men. The quantity of cotton yielded by these trees is enormous, and often covers the earth around the roots to the depth of several feet; it is unfortunately of too short a staple to be used for manufacturing purposes.

ing tree; and stated that its capsule contained seeds, which were taken out, and that what remained was combed like wool."—(*Strabo*, lib. xv. ch. 1.)

The testimony of Nearchus, also another of Alexander's generals, who, on his return from India, sailed down the Indus, and along the coasts of Persia, to the Tigris, is preserved by Arrianus and Strabo. Arrianus quotes him as saying: "That there were in India trees bearing, as it were, flocks or bunches of wool; that the natives made linen garments of it, wearing a shirt which reached to the middle of the leg, a sheet folded about the shoulders, and a turban rolled round the head; and that the linen made by them from this substance was finer and whiter than any other." (*Arriani*, *Rer. Ind.*) Arrian flourished in the second century. In the above passage from Arrianus, that author uses the term for linen in a general sense, as including all fine light cloths made of vegetable substances.

Strabo speaks of the printed cotton robes used in India, commending them for the variety of their beautiful hues. He also alludes to the cultivation of the cotton plant, and the manufacture of cotton fabrics, in the Persian province of Susiana. What he says, though, regarding cotton, is on the authority of Nearchus. Strabo was contemporary with Christ.

Ctesias, who was contemporary with Herodotus, seems also to have known the fact of the use of a kind of wool, the product of trees, for spinning and weaving among the natives of India. He lived in the time of Cyrus, and assisted at the battle of Cunaxa, B. C. 401; but it is not known precisely whether he was in the army of Cyrus, or in that of Artaxerxes. He lived many years at Susa, and wrote a history of Assyria, Persia, and India, of which fragments only remain. Servius, quoting Ctesias, says: "*Ctesias ait in India, esse arbores, quæ lanam ferant.*"

Pomponius Mela, also, in his account of India, says that the woods produced wool, used by the natives for clothing. He also distinctly mentions flax, in opposition to cotton, as being a product of India.

Pliny, who flourished about fifty years after Strabo, gives us a more detailed description of the cotton plant in Egypt than any previous writer, which renders it surprising that no trace of cotton cloth has been found on any of the mummies hitherto unrolled. Pliny's account is as follows: "In upper Egypt,* on the side of Arabia, grows a shrub which some called gossypium, others, xylon, from which cloths are made called xylina. The plant is small, and produces a fruit like a walnut, covered with a woolly substance, within which is a soft, silky wool, that is spun into thread. The cloths made of this substance are superior to all others in whiteness and softness. Of these cloths the robes most acceptable to the Egyptian priests were made."

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* Superior pars Ægypti in Arabiam vergens gignit fruticem, quem aliqui gossypium vocant, plures xylon, et ideo lina inde facta xylina. Parvus est similemque barbatæ nucis defert fructum, cujus ex interiore bombyce lanugo netur. Nec ulla sunt eis candore mollitiare preferenda. Vestes inde sacerdotibus Ægypti gratissimæ.—*Plinius*, lib. xix. c. 1.

Pliny mentions cotton in four different passages of his Natural History, as abounding in Egypt and in India. He confirms the statement above quoted from Theophrastus, regarding cotton in the isle of Tylos, in the Persian Gulf, and says that there was another island in the same gulf, about ten miles from the former, called the smaller Tylos, which was still more fertile in cotton.

The proper oriental term for cotton was *carpas*, whence the term *carbasus*, used by so many authors for cotton. Cotton was known to the Greeks and Romans much earlier than silk, We might cite a great number of authors who speak of cotton under the name of *carbasus*. Commentators think that the term λίνον, or *linum*, was sometimes used to signify cotton. Such is the interpretation which they give to Quintus Curtius, when, in speaking of the Indians, he says, "*Terra lini ferax, unde plerisque sunt vestes.*" In another passage, however, he speaks definitely of both cotton and linen: "Corpora usque pedes *carbaso* velant, soleis pedes, capita *linteis* vinciunt."

The earliest author using the oriental name of cotton was Stalius Cæcilius. He has the following line:

Carbasina, molochina, ampelina,

which, as the words are all Greek, are supposed to be taken from some Greek comedy. Commentators infer from this line, that the Greeks made use of muslins or calicoes, or at least of cotton cloths of some kind, which were brought from India as early as 200 years B. C.

In a work entitled *Periplus Maris Erythrei*, supposed to have been written a little before the time of Pliny, by an Egyptian Greek, named *Arrian*, who went on a mercantile expedition down the Red Sea, and along the whole extent of the coasts of India, he tells us that the Arabian trading vessels brought India cottons to a port in the Red Sea, called Aduli; and that the port of Barygaza, now Baroche, near the north-western coast of India, was a mart of cotton goods of many kinds, whence common cottons, calicoes and muslins, plain and flowered, of Indian manufacture, were exported to various countries. It appears, moreover, that Masalia, in India, now called Masulipatam, was then famous for its cotton fabrics. Bengal muslins were then celebrated among the Greeks, under the name of *gangitiki*, because they were made near the banks of the Ganges.

The oriental custom of using cotton cloths as a protection from the sun's rays, was adopted by the Romans, cotton being not only more common and cheaper than silk, but better adapted for this purpose from its lightness, beauty and fineness. It is supposed, by some learned commentators, that the "white, green and blue hangings," mentioned in the book of Esther, chaps. 1, 6, as adorning the court of the royal palace at Susa, on the occasion of the great feast given by Ahasuerus, were of cotton. Cotton, though cheaper than silk in ancient times, must have been very costly; for Cicero, in enumerating the expensive novelties which contributed to the luxury of Verres, when prætor in Sicily, charges him with using "tents with coverings of cotton"—"*tabernacula carbaseis intenta velis*—as something very extravagant. At a later period, according to Pliny,* Lentulus Spinther first introduced cotton awnings at Rome, in the theatre at the Apollinarian games, in the yeat 63, B. C. Afterwards, Julius Cæsar covered with awnings the whole Roman forum, and the Via Sacra, from his own house to the ascent of the Capitoline Hill. Marcellus, the ædile, nephew of Augustus, also covered the whole forum with awnings, to protect from the sun the lawyers and others engaged in law-suits. Lucretius alludes to the cotton awnings, thus:

Carbasus ut quondam magnis intenta theatris
Dat crepitum, malos inter jactata trabeisque.

The poets of the Augustan age, and many subsequent writers, make frequent mention of cotton. The wars against Mithridates and the Parthians, in the first century before Christ, contributed to make the Romans more familiar with cotton and its use, although their chief supply was through Egypt, more than through Persia and Babylonia.

Apuleius mentions *carbasina* in connection with *bombycina* and other kinds of cloth, meaning to designate calico or muslin.

The best account, probably, that has been given of cotton by any ancient writer, is that of Julius Pollux, who wrote about a hundred years after Pliny. He says:

"There is also Byssina, and Byssus, a kind of flax. But, among the Indians, and now also among the Egyptians, a sort of wool is obtained from a tree. The cloth made from this wool may be compared to linen, except that it is thicker. The tree produces a fruit most nearly resembling a walnut, but three cleft. After the outer covering, which is like a walnut, has divided and become dry, the substance resembling wool is extracted, and is used in the manufacture of cloth for woof, the warp being linen."

Theophilus Presbyter, who wrote about the year 800, A. D., describes the use of cotton paper for making gold leaf. He calls it "*parcamena Græca, quæ fit ex lana ligni*"—Greek parchment made of tree-wool.

We might quote Catullus, Tibullus, and Propertius; and Virgil speaks of cotton five times incidentally in his works; and also add a host of other quotations from a great number of ancient writers, to show that cotton was well known to antiquity; but this will suffice. Those whom we have omitted only allude to cotton incidentally, and often in a manner that leaves one in doubt as to the exact use they intended to make of the terms denoting cotton.

From the travels of the two Arabians who visited China in the ninth century, we learn that, at that time, the ordinary dress of their countrymen was cotton; for they remark, that "the Chinese dress not in cotton, *as the Arabians do*, but in silk." From this, we may infer that cotton was in general use in most of the countries of Western Asia.

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* Pliny, lib. xix. c. 6.

The question, so long agitated by the learned, whether cotton was or was not cultivated in Egypt in ancient times, seems to be put to rest by the discoveries of the microscope. Until this instrument was brought to bear upon the subject, the greatest division and uncertainty prevailed among all. The great difficulty was to determine whether the cloths in which the mummies were wrapped were of linen or cotton. All chemical tests failed.

The character of the wrappings of the mummies, that for more than two thousand years had been accumulating in the catacombs of Egypt, was never questioned until about one hundred years ago. All writers, until then, believed those wrappings to be, as they certainly are, purely of linen. But, in the year 1750, M. Rouelle wrote a dissertation on mummies, which was published in the *Memoires de l'Academie Royale des Sciences,* in which he asserted that the cloth of every mummy which he had examined, even that of the embalmed birds, was *cotton.* This began the discussion, which lasted until the year 1834. Some of the most eminent and learned antiquarians adhered to the opinion of Rouelle; and, indeed, he appears to have been generally followed. Some writers advanced the opinion, that the mummy cloths were a mixture of cotton and linen. Such was that of M. Jomard, one of the authors of the great French work on Egypt, entitled, *Description de l'Egypte.* He founded this opinion partly on the touch and appearance of the cloths, and partly on the testimony of Herodotus, who says distinctly, in his description of the mode of making mummies, that the embalmed body was enveloped in cotton. (Lib. 2, ch. 86.) Herodotus calls the mummy cloth σινδὼν βύσσινος, which may be translated cotton muslin. It is possible that Herodotus was correct; for, although all mummy cloths now in existence are found, by microscopic observation, to be pure linen, some mummies that have not been discovered, or that have long since perished, may have been, in the time of Herodotus, wrapped in cotton. That writer certainly knew what cotton was; for in the extracts from him, which we have given, he accurately describes it.

M. Costaz, who contributed, to the same work on Egypt, the Memoir on the Grotto of El Kab, asserts that mummy cloths were cotton. Dr. Granville, in the Philosophical Transactions for 1825, in describing a mummy which he opened, says: "I have satisfied myself that both cotton and linen have been employed in the preparation of our mummy, although Herodotus mentions only cotton, (byssus,) as the material used for the purpose."

The question, however, was settled by Mr. Bauer and Dr. Ure. The microscope revealed to them a very remarkable and striking difference between the structure and appearance of the ultimate fibres of our modern cotton and those of flax. They found the ultimate fibre of cotton to be a transparent tube, flattened, so that its inward surface is in contact along its axis, and also twisted spirally around it; while that of flax is a transparent tube, *jointed like a cane,* and neither flattened nor spirally twisted. Applying these microscopic results to some 400 specimens of genuine mummy cloth, they were all found to be linen. Mr. Wilkinson, in his *Manners and Customs of the Ancient Egyptians*, considers the observations of Dr. Ure and Mr. Bauer as decisive of the question. Their microscopic observations, too, have proved, that the ancient Egyptians made a general application of linen to all the purposes of ordinary life, since the mummy wrappings consist partly of old linen shirts, napkins, and other articles of clothing and domestic furniture.

A vast deal of time and learning has been expended on the question regarding the character of the cloths enveloping the Egyptian mummies; but, as an ingenious writer observes, the microscope has reduced all this learned labor of so many writers "*to the character of old lumber.*" There is, doubtless, a vast deal more of this "old lumber" in the world, which some future microscope is destined to sweep away.

In allusions by Greek and Roman writers, to cotton fabrics, they are mentioned as expensive and curious productions, rather than as articles of common use. Cotton, among the ancients, must have been far more expensive than linen. It would appear, from all evidence which the Egyptians themselves have afforded us, that they were quite unacquainted with cotton; for it is found on none of their mummies; and, besides, there are no paintings of the cotton shrub on any of the Egyptian ruins. On the other hand, we find upon the tombs of Thebes accurate representations of flax in all its different states of growth and manufacture; also, in the grotto of El Kab. (See Description de l'Egypte, and Hamilton's Ægyptiaca.) Linen was, in fact, the staple article of clothing among all classes of the Egyptians, from the laborer to the monarch and the priest. From them, the Jews first, and afterwards the Greeks and Romans, learned its manufacture.

It is very remarkable, that the proximity of the Syrians and Egyptians to those regions where the cotton plant was indigenous, did not lead them to the use of it, the product of which would have furnished them with an article of clothing so much cheaper than flax. Cotton had been manufactured into clothing, and had come into general use in India, many centuries before it began to be used in the west, by the natives about the Mediterranean; and the general use of cotton in India, and its value as an article of clothing, must have been known to the Greeks and Romans, for they were constantly visiting the East, whence they carried away precious stones, silks and spices. We can only ascribe the indifference of the Greeks and Romans to the cotton plant and its fabrics, to their well-known indifference to the arts which contribute to personal comfort. War was the great business of their lives, the all-engrossing subject, the only pursuit thought worthy of a free citizen.

In Cicero's time the mechanical arts, in the Roman empire, were exercised entirely by slaves. In several of the states of Greece the free citizens were prohibited from exercising any mechanic art, because the labor of the mechanic was considered "hurtful to the strength and agility of the human body, rendering it incapable of those habits which their military and gymnastic exercises required, and thus disqualifying it for undergoing the fatigues and encountering the dangers of war." Such occupations were therefore considered fit only for slaves.

For the same reasons the Greeks discouraged commerce. Many of the states actually prohibited foreign trade altogether. Even in those places where foreign commerce, and the exercise of the mechanic arts, were not prohibited, as at Rome and at Athens, the great mass of the people were, in effect, excluded from all the trades and occupations which are, at the present day, exercised by the lower classes. They were carried on by the slaves of the rich for the benefit of their masters, whose immense wealth, power and protection, rendered it impossible for the poor man to find a market for his work, coming, as it did, in competition with that of the slaves of the rich. This state of things also accounts for the utter absence of all progress in inventions of a labor-saving character; for the Greek or Roman slave had no inducement to exercise what inventive genius he might chance to possess. Should a slave propose an improvement, his Roman master, often more ignorant than the slave himself, looked upon it as a suggestion of laziness, and as a desire of the slave to save his own labor at the master's expense. Hence all inventions or improvements were the work of freemen.

The finer sort of manufactures, among the Greeks and Romans, was excessively dear; nor did a reduction of price begin to take place until after the discovery of the route to India by the way of the Cape of Good Hope. Cotton, indeed, continued to be more costly than linen, until long after the discovery of America. The high price of linens and woolens, among the Greeks and Romans, accounts for the total absence among them of that great but fickle goddess of modern times—*Fashion.* They had gods and goddesses for everything else. Their dress was seldom varied, as is proved by the costumes of the antique statues. A change of costume was too expensive, and their dresses were loose and flowing, so as to last for a long time. It must be admitted, however, that in proportion to the influence which fashion exercises in any country may its claim to civilization be vindicated, nothing being so characteristic of a rude and barbarous state of existence, as a rigid adherence to the customs of antiquity.

India produces several varieties of cotton, both of the herbaceous and of the tree kinds. Marco Polo, who wrote in the 13th century, says " that cotton is produced in Guzerat in large quantities from a tree about six yards high, which continues to bear for twenty years; but that the cotton taken from trees of that age is not adapted to spinning, but only to quilting. That taken from trees twelve years old is suitable for muslins and other manufactures of extraordinary fineness." Sir John Mandeville, who traveled in the fourteenth century, fifty years later than Polo, mentions the annual herbaceous cotton as cultivated in India. "In many places," says he, " the seed of the cotton (cothon) which we call tree-wood, is sown every year, and there springs up from it copses of low shrubs on which this wool grows."

Forbes, in his Oriental Memoirs, thus describes the herbaceous cotton of Guzerat: "The cotton shrub, which grows to the height of three or four feet, and in verdure resembles the currant-bush, requires a longer time than rice to arrive at perfection. The shrubs are planted between the rows of rice. Soon after the rice is harvested, the cotton shrubs put forth a beautiful yellow flower, with a crimson eye in each petal. This is succeeded by a green pod, filled with a white, stringy pulp. The pod turns brown and hard as it ripens, and then separates into two or three divisions containing the cotton."

Malte Brun speaks of cotton in India thus: "The cotton tree grows on all the Indian mountains, but its produce is coarse in quality. The herbaceous cotton prospers chiefly in Bengal, and on the Coromandel coast, and there the best cotton goods are manufactured. The cultivation of this plant is very lucrative, an acre producing about nine quintals of cotton in the year."

When Columbus discovered America, cotton was the chief article of clothing among the Mexicans. The Abbe Clavigero says, that "of cotton the Mexicans made large webs, and as delicate and fine as those of Holland, which were so highly esteemed in Europe. They wove their cloths of different figures and colors, representing different animals and flowers. Of feathers interwoven with cotton they made mantles, bed-curtains, carpets, gowns, and other things not less soft than beautiful. With cotton also they interwove the finest hair of the belly of rabbits and hares, after having spun it into thread; of this they made most beautiful cloths, and in particular, winter waistcoats for their lords." Cortes, the conqueror of Mexico, sent as presents to Charles V., says Clavigero, "cotton mantles, some white, others mixed with white and black, or red, green, yellow, and blue; waistcoats, handkerchiefs, counterpanes, tapestries, and carpets of cotton; and the colors of the cotton were extremely fine." Cochineal and indigo being native products of Mexico, they were well supplied with dyeing materials; but the fact of their having carried the arts of manufacturing and dyeing cotton to such a high stage of perfection, is proof that they must have received their knowledge from India, by way of the west.

Columbus also found the cotton plant growing wild and in great abundance in the West India islands, and on the continent of South America, where the inhabitants were found dressed in cotton, and using fish-nets of the same material. They also used it for beds. They had probably used cotton for ages.

As we find no traces in any of the Greek and Roman writers of the culture of cotton in any of the countries bordering on the Mediterranean, until after the Mohammedans had extended their conquests westward, we may infer that Europe is indebted to them for this branch of agriculture. They seem to have carried it into Greece, Syria, Italy, Spain, Sicily, and into every country on the Mediterranean.

The explorations of modern travelers show that the cotton plant is indigenous to Africa, and that in almost every region of that portion of the globe the inhabitants of every class use it as raiment. The Portuguese made a voyage to South Africa in 1516, and found the Caffres then wearing cotton dresses. According to Macpherson's "Annals," cotton cloth, woven on the coast of Guinea, was imported into England in 1590. The colors and designs observed on the cotton dresses of the Africans prove that the manufacture is of high antiquity.

It does not appear that cotton began to be cultivated in the fields in China as an article of manufacture until the 11th century, though it was cultivated by the Chinese in their gardens for its flowers as early as the end of the 7th century. "The whole town is full of cotton flowers," says a Chinese poet of that time, in some lines written on summer.

How so ingenious a people as the Chinese could have known so long the product of the cotton plant and its uses, without making it an article of manufacture, it is difficult to imagine. Indeed, coercion seems to have been necessary before they could be persuaded to undertake its culture. It was not until the dynasty of the Mogul Tartars, who conquered China in 1280, and held it for 88 years, that cotton began to be cultivated largely. The emperors of that dynasty compelled its extensive cultivation, by imposing an annual tribute of cotton on several of the great provinces. The Chinese objected to its cultivation, on the ground that it interfered with their corn, forest trees, and the manufacture of silk; but their prejudices were finally overcome by the liberality and care of the Tartar emperors, and all of the provinces engaged in its cultivation.

In consequence of a great dearth of provisions in China about a hundred years ago, an imperial mandate was issued, ordering a considerable portion of the cotton lands to be used for corn; and since that time the Chinese have imported large quantities of cotton.

We have shown in the preceding pages, that from a very remote period the natives of all the tropical countries of Asia, Africa and America, were well acquainted with the cotton plant; and that in India, some parts of Africa, and in Mexico and South America, it had at that period become a common article of clothing. We now proceed to the second branch of our subject, in which we propose to sketch, as briefly as possible, from the earliest period to the present day, the

HISTORY OF COTTON MANUFACTURES.—We have the authority of the Sacred Scriptures for saying, that fig leaves formed the first clothing used by man; that skins of beasts probably came next, and after these probably cotton, wool and silk, in the order in which we here give them. Whether cotton, wool or silk, was the first natural product manufactured into clothing, is a question which has not been much discussed, and one, too, which it would be difficult to answer. The earliest historical records throw but little light on the subject. According to the most learned commentators, it cannot be fully determined whether silk is ever mentioned in the Old Testament. It is true that the word *silk* is found in King James' translation, but it is quite unauthorized. The meaning of the Hebrew word, translated *silk* in the common English Bible, and τρίχαπτον in the Septuagint version, cannot be determined, for τρίχαπτον is in reality as obscure as the Hebrew word itself. Jerome could not make out its meaning, and concluded that the word was invented by the translators. It is found nowhere out of the Septuagint except in a passage of Pherecrates, a comic poet of Athens, contemporary with Plato and Aristophanes. Braunius, in his *De vestilu Heb. Sacerdotum*, gives the whole question a full examination, and decides that there is no mention of silk in the whole of the Old Testament, and that it was unknown to the Hebrews in ancient times.

Whether cotton was used before wool, depends, we conceive, much upon the question regarding the situation of the Garden of Eden; but this question cannot be determined. If the first inhabitants of the earth dwelt in a region producing cotton as a spontaneous production, it is probable that cotton was the first article manufactured into clothing after leaves and skins; but if the locality of Eden lay in any other region, wool was probably the article used first.

So far as all existing historical records aid us in determining the question, we think that the weight of evidence is in favor of cotton as the first manufactured article of clothing. We know that cotton was an article of clothing in common use in India in very remote ages, and that the Indians had brought its manufacture to a very high stage of perfection at a period when neither Egypt nor any of the western nations had any knowledge of its growth or manufacture. Growing, too, as it did, spontaneously, it would naturally present itself as the easiest article for manufacture that could be found. Men would hardly go to the greater trouble of raising sheep for their wool, when the earth presented them, everywhere, with the beautiful pods of silky cotton.

Undoubtedly the inventive faculty of man began to exhibit itself at a very early period; but the insect world taught man the art of weaving. The *spider*, says an ingenious and learned author, "may be regarded as the earliest practical *weaver* on record;" and he might have said *spinner;* while the much despised *wasp* may claim the honor of being the first *paper* manufacturer, since it produces an undoubted specimen of paper in the material of its nests, of so smooth and hard a surface, as to admit of being written upon with ease and legibility.

The antiquity of the manufacture of cotton cannot be reached by any authentic records. Neither wool, silk, nor linen, can claim a higher antiquity. One thing is pretty certain, that its first manufacture may be traced to India, whence it passed to all the rest of the world. India, indeed, has been the source of many of the arts of civilized life. It was, in all probability, the cradle of mankind, and the source of Assyrian, Egyptian and Persian civilization.

The Indians have, in all ages, maintained an unapproached and almost incredible perfection in their fabrics of cotton. Indeed, some of their muslins might be thought the work of fairies or insects, rather than of man; but these are produced in small quantities, and have seldom been exported. In the same province of India from which the ancient Greeks obtained the finest muslins then known, namely, Bengal, these astonishing fabrics are manufactured at the present day.*

We are told by two Mohammedan travelers, who went to India in the 9th century, "that in that country they make garments of such extraordinary perfection, that nowhere else are the like to be seen. They are woven to that degree of fineness that they may be drawn through a ring of moderate size." Marco Polo, in the 13th century, mentions Coromandel, and especially Masulipatam, as producing "the finest and most beautiful cottons that are to be found in any part of the world;" and this is still the case as to the flowered and glazed cottons, called chintzes.

The Portuguese adventurers who went to India immediately after the discovery of the route by the Cape of Good Hope, speak of "the great quantities of cotton cloths admirably painted, also some white and some striped, held in the highest estimation, which were made in Bengal." Cæsar Frederick, a Venetian merchant, who traveled in India in 1563, describes the extensive trade carried on between St. Thomé (a port 150 miles from Negapatam) and Pegu, in *bumbast* (cotton) cloth of every sort, painted, which is a rare thing, because this kind of cloths show as if they were gilded with divers colors, and the more they are washed the livelier the colors will become; and there is made such account of this kind of cloth, that a small bale of it will cost 1000 or 2000 ducats."†

Tavernier, who traveled in India about 200 years ago, speaks of the white calicoes (so called from the city of *Calicut*, in India, where they were first seen by Europeans) or muslins woven in Bengal, and rendered so remarkably white by being dipped in lemon juice. He says, "Some calicuts are so fine that you can hardly feel them in your hand, and the thread when spun is scarcely discernible." The same writer says, that "there is made at Seconge, in the province of Malwa, a sort of calicut so fine, that when a man puts it on, his skin shall appear as plainly through it as if he was quite naked; but the merchants are not permitted to transport it, for the Governor is obliged to send it all to the Great Mogul's seraglio and the principal lords of the court, to make the sultanesses and noblemen's wives shifts and garments for the hot weather; and the king and the lords take great pleasure to behold them in these, and see them dance with nothing else upon them." Speaking of the turbans of the Mohammedan Indians, Tavernier says: "The rich have them of so fine cloth, that twenty-five or thirty ells of it, put into a turban, will not weigh four ounces."

Eighteen hundred years ago, according to Arrian, author of the Periplus, there were thousands of men, women and children employed at Baroche, in Guzerat, and the adjacent villages, in the manufacture of cotton, from the coarsest sail-cloth to the finest muslins. So that it is a great mistake to suppose that cotton manufactories are of modern origin. They existed in India centuries before the Christian era.

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* Baine's Hist. of the Cotton Manufacture, p. 55.

† Hakluyt's Voyages, vol. ii, p. 366.

The ingenuity of the Hindoo cotton manufacturers is truly wonderful. The late Rev. William Ward, a missionary at Serampore, says: that "At two places in Bengal, muslins are made so exceedingly fine, that four months are required to weave one piece, which sells at five hundred rupees. When this muslin is laid on the grass, and the dew has fallen upon it, it is no longer discernible." We might cite a great number of creditable authorities, in proof of the fineness of India cotton manufactures, and the ingenuity of the Hindoos, but these will suffice. The oriental hyperbole which describes the muslins of Decca as "*webs of woven wind*," is less poetical than is generally supposed. No modern European manufacturer of cotton at all approaches the Hindoos, in respect to the fineness of his fabrics. The extreme of fineness to which yarns for muslins are now spun in Great Britain, is 250 hanks to the pound, though cotton yarn has been spun in England making 350 hanks to the pound. This was, however, only an experiment, to ascertain how fine cotton could be spun. No such yarn is or could be used in making muslins, or for any other purpose. The Hindoos are the only ones who have ever woven such yarn into fabrics.

The cotton manufacture, in India, is not carried on in a few large towns only, or in only one or two districts; it is universal. Almost every village has its weavers. Orme, in his Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, says: "At present much the greatest part of the whole provinces are employed in this single manufacture of cotton. The progress of the cotton manufacture in India includes no less than a description of the lives of half the inhabitants of Hindoostan."

Dr. Hamilton, in his Account of Patna, mentions it as a fact, strikingly illustrating the national character of the Hindoos, that "All Indian weavers, who work for the common market, make the woof of one end of the cloth coarser than that of the other, and attempt to sell to the unwary by the fine end, although every one almost who deals with them is perfectly aware of the circumstances; and although in the course of his life any weaver may not ever have an opportunity of gaining by this means, yet he continues the practice, with the hope of being able, at some time or other, to take advantage of the purchaser of his goods."

It is a matter of great surprise that the Hindoos, with such rude materials for manufacturing, should be able to produce fabrics of such exquisite delicacy and beauty, unrivaled by the products of any other nation, even those best skilled in the mechanic arts. This is explained by the remarkably fine sense of touch possessed by the effeminate Hindoos; by their patience and gentleness; and by the hereditary continuance of a particular species of manufacture in families through many generations. It is further observed, that every distinct kind of cloth is the product of a particular district, in which the fabric has been transmitted perhaps for centuries from father to son.

The commerce of the Hindoos in cotton fabrics has been extensive from the time of Christ to the end of the last century. For many hundreds of years, beginning even farther back than any authentic record carries us, the Hindoos, probably, supplied Persia, Arabia, Syria, Egypt, Abyssinia, and all the eastern parts of Africa, together with Europe, with all their cottons and muslins. The great marts of this commerce were at Surat and Calicut, on the west coast of India, and at Masulipatam, Madras, and St. Thomé, on the east coast.

At one time the manufacturers of all Europe, owing to the beauty and cheapness of India muslins, chintzes, and calicoes, apprehended ruin by their competition. In the seventeenth century the Dutch and English East India Companies imported these goods in large quantities, which importation, in 1678, produced, in England, a loud outcry against the admission of India goods, which, it was maintained, were ruining the woolen manufacture. The interference of cotton with woolen fabrics was greatly dreaded in England. The English regarded the woolen manufacture, for many centuries, with almost superstitious veneration. It was, in fact, the most extensive branch of manufactures in the world, save that of cotton in India, until the commencement of the present century, and the English looked upon it as the palladium of their national prosperity.

The cotton fabrics of India became common in England at the commencement of the eighteenth century, and were complained of as a great evil by a host of pamphleteers. In the year 1700 an act of the British parliament forbade the importation of India silks and printed calicoes for domestic use, either as apparel or furniture, under a penalty of £200 on the wearer or seller. This was done to "avert the ruin of English manufactures, and revive their prosperity."

The manufacture of cotton, as we have seen, was general in India, and had attained high excellence in the age of the first Greek historian, that is, in the fifth century before Christ, at which time it had already existed for an unknown period; yet eighteen centuries more elapsed before it was introduced into Italy or Constantinople, or even into the neighboring empire of China. Though so well suited to hot climates, we have seen that cottons were known rather as a curiosity than as a common article of dress in Egypt and Persia, five centuries after the Greeks had heard of the δενδρα εριοφορα, the wool-bearing trees of India. In Egypt, the manufacture never reached any considerable degree of excellence, and the muslins worn by the higher classes have always been imported from India. In Spain, the manufacture, carried thither by the Arabs, flourished for a time, and then became nearly extinct. In Italy, Germany, and Flanders, it maintained only a sickly and ignoble existence.

In the downfall of the Roman Empire the arts and commerce perished. We have at this period only a few incidental notices of the cotton manufacture in the East. Omar, the successor of Mohammed, is described as "preaching in a tattered cotton gown, torn in twelve places;" and Ali, his fellow fanatic, wore, at his inauguration as Caliph, "a thin cotton gown tied around him with a girdle." Whence, it is inferred, that cotton was a common article of dress, in Arabia, at the time of the Hegira, (A. D. 622,) and had probably been so for many generations.

There is little doubt that the Mohammedans carried along with their conquests into the western world the arts of growing and manufacturing cotton, and that they also introduced into India many improvements in the oriental manufacture of cotton, suggested by their superior intelligence and inventive genius.

In Spain, the cotton manufacture flourished during the thirteenth, fourteenth and fifteenth centuries, and then declined. The cotton plant still grows wild in many parts of Spain. Barcelona was famous for its cotton sail-cloth, large quantities of which it furnished to other nations. The Spanish term *fustaneros*, from which comes our word *fustian*, denotes manufactures of a stout, substantial kind of cotton goods first manufactured in Spain. Cotton *paper* was also probably first made in Europe by the Spanish Arabs, who brought the art from the East, some say Egypt, others Bucharia. The Arabs also manufactured linen paper at Valencia. The religious antipathy, however, which existed between the Moors of Spain and the Christians, prevented the propagation of the oriental arts in the West; and when the Saracens were driven from Spain, the arts which they had brought to that country perished.

The Portuguese were the first to import into Europe the cotton stuffs and muslins of India, but they did not attempt the manufacture of cotton in Portugal. The Dutch, however, not only imported cotton fabrics largely from India, but also, towards the latter end of the sixteenth century, began to manufacture them at home. Long prior to this period a manufacture of indigenous cotton had existed in the southern parts of Italy, where, particularly along the gulf of Taranto, the plant had been cultivated since the eleventh century. In Calabria the plant was biennial. The soil of southern Italy is said to have been very favorable to the culture of cotton.

The manufacture of cotton, in England, did not commence until about the beginning of the sixteenth century. They brought their raw cotton from the Levant, Lisbon, and Sicily. The first cotton manufacturers in England were Protestants from the Low Countries, whither they were driven by the religious persecutions of the court of Spain. They commenced the manufacture at Bolton and Manchester.

The cotton fabrics first manufactured in England were partly of linen, owing to the scarcity of cotton. It was not until 1773 that fabrics purely of cotton began to be made in England. These were produced by Messrs. Strull and Need, the partners of the illustrious Arkwright; but no sooner were they produced, than it was discovered that a law existed, expressly *for the encouragement of the arts*, prohibiting the sale of such fabrics. Application was immediately made to the British parliament for the repeal of so unwise a law, but it required much time and expense to convince that legislative body of the propriety of repealing so preposterous an enactment. This it finally did, on condition, however, that three pence a square yard should be paid by the manufacturers on all printed cottons or calicoes.

Men have often complained, that the world has been cursed by physic and false medical philosophy; but it may well be questioned, whether society has not suffered much more from the operations of *stupid laws;* for what step forward has civilization ever made, that has not found a stumbling-block in some stupid enactment, if not in some entire code of laws? Commerce and manufactures especially have suffered, and still continue to suffer by bad laws.

In modern times, cotton has attained to an importance among the vegetable productions of the earth, which could not have been even dreamed of a few centuries ago. The manufacture of cotton, though it now affords employment and subsistence to hundreds of thousands of persons, is almost wholly a consequence of discoveries and inventions, made in England and in this country, since the middle of the last century. Previous to that time the manufacture was confined to the narrowest limits. Owing to the difficulty of separating the wool from the seed, its price, so long as this operation had to be performed by the hand, was necessarily high; while the cost of its spinning and weaving by the wheels and looms in use previous to 1760, added so much to its price, that cotton articles were suited only to the use and demand of the higher classes of society.

It is a very remarkable fact, that no material improvements in the art of manufacturing cotton fabrics took place, during the long period from the earliest historical dates down to the middle of the last century. The Hindoo, at the present day, uses the same rude and simple implements in manufacturing his fabrics, that were used when Herodotus wrote. All the great improvements in the art of manufacturing cotton and woolen were reserved for the present age.

The first great improvement was the invention of the spinning-jenny, by Hargreaves, in 1767, by which one individual could spin 120 threads at once, or, in other words, perform, in any given length of time, the work of 120 persons! Previous to this invention, every thread used in the manufacture of cotton, wool, and flax, throughout the world, was spun singly by the fingers of the spinner, with the aid of that rude, antique, and classical instrument, the domestic *spinning-wheel.* The jenny of Hargreaves, however, was fit to spin only the softer descriptions of yarn, or that used as *weft*, it being unable to give the thread the firmness and hardness required for *warp.* Two years afterwards, this deficiency was removed by the genius of Arkwright, who completed what Hargreaves had begun, by inventing the *spinning frame*—a wonderful piece of machinery, which spins any number of threads, of any degree of fineness and hardness, leaving to the hand of the operator merely the feeding of the machine with cotton, and joining the threads when they happen to break.

Five years later, in 1774, the genius of Compton conceived the happy idea of combining in one machine the inventions of Hargreaves and Arkwright, thus erecting an instrument turning one hundred spindles at once—hundred-handed, like Briareus and his giant brothers of old.

At first this astonishing invention was turned by hand, and Kelly was the first to apply to it the waters of the Clyde. Watt next applied the more potent agency of steam, thus causing two thousand spindles to whirl at once in a single machine.

But the spinning machinery awaited another improvement. By an ingenious contrivance, Roberts succeeded in rendering the hand even of the spinner unnecessary, the machine doing the entire work unaided. Now, in our cotton factories may be seen several thousand spindles, in a single apartment, revolving with inconceivable rapidity, with no hand to urge their progress or guide their operations—drawing out, twisting, and winding up, as many thousand threads, with unfailing precision and indefatigable patience and strength—a scene as magical to the unfamiliarized eye, as the transformations of oriental tales.

Nearly at the same time that the spinning department was thus wonderfully improved, Dr. Cartwright, a clergyman of Kent, England, invented the *power-loom*. But there was still another thing necessary to complete this astonishing career of discovery. Without a vastly increased supply of the raw material, and at a much lower price than it had previously brought, the inventions of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Compton, Roberts and Watt, would have been of comparatively little value. This last, and, perhaps, the most important step of all, was the work of an American. Mr. Eli Whitney, a native of Connecticut, by the invention of the *cotton-gin*, conferred upon the world a machine which has done more for cotton growers, manufacturers, commerce and civilization, than any other one machine that was ever invented. Without the cotton-gin, all the inventions for spinning would be comparatively useless, and even the steam-engine itself would be stripped of half its value, as a manufacturing engine. Where would now be all our immense exports of raw cotton, all the vast cotton manufacturing establishments of the world, and all the vast commerce of nations in cotton fabrics, if we had not the cotton-gin of our illustrious countryman, Eli Whitney? We often talk of erecting monuments to perpetuate the memory of our great statesmen and our literary men; but certainly Eli Whitney deserves a monument whose top would overlook the whole cotton region of North America; and such a monument should be erected by the cotton planters of the southern states.

Previous to 1790, the United States did not export a single pound of raw cotton. In 1792, we exported the trifling quantity of 138,328 lbs. Whitney's invention came into operation in 1793; and in 1794 we exported 1,601,760 lbs; and in 1795, 5,276,306 lbs. And so astonishing has been the growth of cotton since the invention of the cotton-gin, and occasioned by it, that in 1838 the United States exported 595,952,297 lbs. Our immense exports since that year need not be given.

A cotton mill is probably, all things considered, the most astonishing triumph of skill and ingenuity; all the various operations, from the carding of the cotton to its conversion into a texture as fine almost as that of the gossamer, being performed by machinery. Each of the workmen at present employed in a cotton mill, superintends as much work as could have been executed by two or three hundred workmen sixty or seventy years ago; and yet, instead of the number of workmen being diminished by machinery, it has been vastly increased. It would be curious to investigate how many persons in the world depend directly for subsistence on the inventions and discoveries of Hargreaves, Arkwright, Watt, Whitney, and other founders and improvers of this great manufacture. They certainly amount to several millions; at the same time that there is hardly an individual on the face of the globe, who is not indebted to them for an increase of comfort and enjoyment. It is impossible to estimate the advantage to the great bulk of mankind arising from the wonderful cheapness of cotton goods. The humblest classes have now the means of dressing as elegantly as did the highest fifty years ago; and the humblest peasant's cottage may now have as handsome furniture for beds, windows, tables, &c., as the house of the rich man half a century ago.

The following table will show the early progress of the cotton manufacture in Great Britain prior to the invention of the spinning-jenny by Hargreaves:

Years.	Raw Cotton Imported.	Value of Goods Exported.
1697	1,976,359 lbs	£5,915
1701	1,985,868	23,253
1710	715,008	5,698
1720	1,972,805	16,200
1730	1,545,472 lbs	£13,524
1741	1,645,031	20,709
1751	2,976,610	45,986
1764	3,870,392	200,354

The spinning-jenny of Hargreaves went into operation in 1767; and Arkwright's improvement was patented and put in operation in 1769. The influence of these, and other inventions and improvements made afterwards, on the manufacture and trade, may be seen by inspecting the following table:

Years.	Cotton Imported.	Cotton Exported.
1781	5,198,778 lbs	96,788 lbs.
1785	18,400,384	407,496
1790	31,447,605	844,154
1795	26,401,340	1,193,737
1800	56,010,732	4,416,610
1805	59,682,406	804,243
1810	132,488,935 lbs.	8,787,109 lbs.
1811	91,576,535	1,266,867
1812	63,025,936	1,440,912
1813	50,966,000	——
1814	60,060,239	6,282,437
1615	99,306,343	6,780,392

The importations of cotton into England, from all sources, since 1816, have been as follows, according to the statement of Messrs. Geo. Holt & Co., cotton brokers at Liverpool:

1816	93,000,000 lbs.
1820	143,000,000
1825	222,000,000
1830	261,000,000
1835	361,000,000
1837	408,000,000
1838	501,000,000 lbs.
1839	388,000,000
1840	583,000,000
1845	721,979,953
1850–'51	800,000,000

The best portion of the cotton imported into England comes from the United States; the balance from Brazil, Turkey, Egypt, and the British East and West India possessions. England takes the lead of all other nations in manufactures, particularly of cotton. It is estimated that the number of persons employed in this manufacture in Great Britain is not far from 2,000,000. Estimating the state of the cotton manufacture by the number of spindles employed, it stands nearly as follows, at the present time, in the various manufacturing countries of the world:

Great Britain	17,500,000	spindles.
France	4,300,000	"
United States	2,500,000	"
Germany	815,000	"
Russia	700,000	"
Switzerland	650,000	spindles.
Belgium	420,000	"
Spain	300,000	"
Italy	300,000	"

Manchester, or rather Lancashire, is the grand seat of the English cotton manufacture; and next to it Cheshire, Nottinghamshire, the West Riding of Yorkshire, and Cumberland, are its principal seats. Glasgow and its vicinity is the seat of the manufacture in Scotland, and Belfast in Ireland, where it is said to be on the decline.

The value of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain is greater, estimating from the last table of spindles above, than that of all the rest of the world besides. It is difficult to give an accurate estimate of the annual total value of the cotton manufacture of Great Britain. Mr. McCulloch, in his *Commercial Dictionary*, estimates it at about £34,000,000, or $164,560,000. This estimate is considered by Mr. Baines, in his elaborate work on the Cotton Manufacture, as too small.

It would be a pleasant task to trace the history of cotton manufactures in France, Germany, Holland, Russia, and other countries of Europe; but as that would extend this paper much beyond the limits we designed for it, we shall conclude with a brief history of the manufacture of cotton in the United States.

The first cotton-mill of the United States was erected in Pawtucket, Rhode Island, by the late Mr. Samuel Slater, a native of Belper, Derbyshire, England, in 1790. The machinery was that of the Arkwright patent. There is evidence that Hargreave's jennies were in use in this country previous to 1790, but by whom, and when introduced, is not known. They were worked principally by Scotch and Irish weavers, who produced mixed goods of linen and cotton. Great Britain, at that time, used every means to prevent the introduction of her spinning machinery into other countries. Her law expressly forbade its exportation; and every attempt to import the machinery into America had failed. The Hon. Tench Coxe, of Philadelphia, entered into a bond with a person, who engaged to send him, from London, complete brass models of Arkwright's patents. The machinery was completed and packed, but was detected by the examining officer, and forfeited, according to the existing laws of Great Britain. No way remained to obtain the benefit of the British inventions but to manufacture them on our own soil. For this purpose, Mr. Slater came to America. He had been a pupil of Arkwright, and was perfectly familiar with all his patents. He brought with him neither patterns nor memoranda to assist him in his work, but depended entirely on his memory, a thing that the statutes of Great Britain could not reach. The King of England had frequently made proclamations against any tradesman leaving the kingdom, and had called on his officers for their most vigilant watch against it;* but the professions of men leaving the kingdom could not be always detected.

Some of the first yarn made by Mr. Slater, in America, and some of the first cotton cloth made from it, was sent to the Secretary of the Treasury, on the 15th of October, 1791; and it is probably in existence now. It is stated† that Mr. Clay had some of the first yarn in his possession, in 1836. It was as fine as number 40.

Mr. Slater was induced to leave his employment under Arkwright, in England, to come to America, by seeing a premium offered by the Pennsylvania Society for a certain machine to spin cotton.

Mr. Slater labored under the greatest disadvantages for the want of suitable materials, and mechanics of sufficient ingenuity to assist him. The history of his first labors is deeply interesting, for the details of which we must refer the reader to his biographer. His first machine was what is called a water-frame of only twenty-four spindles. Such was the humble origin of cotton manufacturing in America. From that first machine the advancement of the cotton manufacture has been truly astonishing. It has caused hundreds of populous villages, towns, and even cities, to spring up, as if by magic, where only a few years ago nothing was seen but a barren wilderness.‡

The rapid growth of the cotton manufacture in this country, is unparalleled in the history of industry. The second cotton-mill in America was erected in 1795, at the same place as the first. No more were built until 1803, when a third was erected in Massachusetts, followed by a fourth, in 1804. During the three following years ten more mills were erected in Rhode Island, and one in Connecticut, making in all fifteen mills with 8,000 spindles, producing 300,000 pounds of yarn annually. By a report made to the government in 1810, it appears that eighty-seven additional mills had been erected by the end of 1809, of which sixty-two were then in operation by horse and water-power, running 31,000 spindles. The cotton manufacture continued to spread, and received a considerable impulse from the war of 1812. In that year there were in Rhode Island thirty-three cotton factories, with 30,663 spindles. In Massachusetts there were twenty mills, with 17,371 spindles.

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* Life of Samuel Slater, by G. S. White, p. 88. † Idem, p. 89.

‡ Astonishing as has been the increase of the various manufacturing towns and villages in the United States, *Lowell*, in Massachusetts, surpasses every thing of the kind that has been witnessed within the memory of man. In 1819 its site was a wilderness, whither sportsmen went to shoot game. The entire population of the territory around it did not exceed 200 souls. It was a poor, barren district, with but a few houses on the spot where the city now stands; and the inhabitants supported themselves principally by fishing in the Concord and Merrimack rivers, at the junction of which Lowell is situated. A company of wealthy men in Boston, seeing the valuable water privileges of the spot, purchased it for manufacturing purposes. The first cotton-mill was erected there in 1822; and in 1830, the population of the place had increased to 6,477 persons. In 1840, the population had become 20,796; and the value of property there was $12,400,000. In 1844, the population was 25,000. It is now 35,000. Thus, what only thirty years ago was a wild pasture-ground, has become a large and flourishing city: a proof of what water-power, seconded by capital and enterprise, can do for a place. Lowell is a splendid example of an American manufacturing city, and excites the attention, and, in some measure, the jealousy, says McCulloch, of Manchester and Glasgow. We need no better proof of what manufactures can accomplish than the history of Lowell. The Lowell cotton-mills, owned by twelve manufacturing companies, extend in a continuous line of about a mile, from the Merrimack to the Pawtucket Falls.

A report made to Congress, in 1816, gives the following statement of the consumption of cotton by our mills, showing how rapidly the cotton manufacture had advanced. The consumption of cotton was, in

1800	500 bales.
1805	1000 "
1810	10,000 "
1815	90,000 "

The following statement is also officially made in the same report, showing the state of the cotton manufacture at that time:

Capital employed in 1816,	$40,000,000
Males employed over 17 years old	10,000
Women and female children	66,000
Boys under 17 years	24,000
Cotton cloth manufactured	81,000,000 yards.
Cost of same	$24,000,000
Raw cotton, 90,000 bales, or	27,000,000 lbs.

The subject of protection was then extensively agitated. The importations of cotton goods, in 1815, and 1816, were immense, and created great alarm among manufacturers. The amount of importations of those two years was about $180,000,000. During the years 1817, 1818, 1819, and 1820, great distress prevailed among the manufacturers, but Congress was not disposed to grant their petitions in full.

Tariff laws were passed in 1824, 1828, and 1832, in each of which the duty upon foreign cotton goods, imported, was 25 per cent. *ad valorem*. These duties, though they did not prevent our markets from being glutted with foreign goods, caused our manufactures to gradually increase.

In 1820, the first cotton mill in Pennsylvania was erected at Manayunk, by Capt. John Towers. There were then only two small cottages on the spot. It now contains 500 dwellings, 5 churches, 15 stores, and about 30 mills.

Amongst the numerous towns that have sprung into existence, owing to the influence of manufactures, may be mentioned—Waltham, Patterson, Ware, Fall River, Taunton, Pawtucket, Lawrence, Adams, Newmarket, Matteawan, Norristown, Pa., and Gloucester, N. J.

In 1840, there were in the United States about 1025 cotton mills, with about 2,112,000 spindles. These mills were distributed as follows:

In Massachusetts	310	Rhode Island	130
New-Hampshire	70	Connecticut	120
Vermont	30	New-York	120

Pennsylvania	80	Ohio	10
New-Jersey	55	Virginia	10
Delaware	17	Kentucky	10
Maryland	30		

Many of these were small establishments, with not more than 1000 spindles; there were, also, at that time, numerous small factories in the Western and Southern States, not included in the above statement. In 1840, the

Cotton used annually in our mills, was	106,000,000 lbs.
Capital invested, was	$80,000,000
Annual value of cotton manufacture	60,000,000

In the same year there were in operation, in the New-England states, 1,590,140 cotton spindles. The whole number of spindles in the United States, in 1850, was 2,500,000, showing an increase of 20 per cent. in the last ten years.

Of the present actual condition of the cotton manufacture in this country, we cannot speak with entire certainty, until the returns of the census, for 1850, are published. We are deficient in details, but for the figures given above, derived chiefly from a work on American cotton manufactures, by Robt. H. Baird, 1851, we can speak with confidence.

Of the 2,500,000 cotton spindles now in the United States, 150,000 are in the Southern states, and 100,000 in the Western. A committee of the Manufacturers' Convention, held last year at Richmond, Va., stated, in their report, that there were 20 companies engaged in the manufacture of cotton in that state, with an aggregate capital of $1,800,000. These companies run, when in full operation, 54,000 spindles, producing no yarn, however, finer than No. 20. For some time past, these Virginia mills have had in full operation 22,000 spindles, at a reduction of 25 per cent. on the wages; 7,000 spindles three-fourths of the time, and 8,000 one-third of the time. The remainder of the factories are entirely, or partially, stopped.* In Maryland, affairs are not much better than in Virginia. "Out of 28 mills in that state," says Mr. Baird, "only two are constantly employed; 18 work a part of the time, and eight are entirely idle. The total average product is less than half the capacity of the mills. In Rhode Island, too, we learn from a writer in the Scientific American, for Dec. 7, 1850, some 70, out of the 130 cotton mills in that state, have stopped.

These suspensions and depressions of our cotton manufacturing operations are undoubtedly attributable to the following causes combined:

1. Our present low tariff.
2. The high price of cotton; and
3. Our manufacturing too many coarse goods. Which of these causes is the most potent, we leave our readers to decide. The first we cannot discuss without being drawn into the field of politics. The second affects manufacturers by turning capital into other channels;

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* Baird's Cotton Spinner, p. 25.

and the third by overstocking the markets with coarse goods, and leaving our citizens dependent on other countries for fine ones. If we would keep the fine goods of other countries out of our markets, we must manufacture that description of goods at home. Nothing but an absolute prohibition of the fine cotton fabrics of other countries would keep them out of our markets, if we did not manufacture them ourselves. If our manufacturers do not supply the demand for fine fabrics, they must and will come from abroad. The real truth of the matter is: England manufactures large quantities of coarse cottons, and our manufacturers make scarcely anything else but coarse; and the consequence is, that the present supply of coarse fabrics is greater than the demand—the markets are glutted. Mills, then, are obliged to stop. We consider this the chief cause of the failures. The other causes mentioned have their weight.

The process of calico printing by machinery is the last invention, and the crowning one, in the manufacture of cotton. Before the introduction of calico printing, the cotton manufacture in the United States was considered to be too precarious to justify one in an attempt to manufacture the finer fabrics; but the introduction of calico printing has placed our cotton manufactures on a permanent basis. Our consumption of domestic calicoes is immense, and all our coarser cotton fabrics have the preference in the markets of South America, China, Siam, the East Indies, and elsewhere, on account of their being superior in durability to those of France and England.

The comparative idleness of our cotton factories is to be deplored; but the general government cannot justly be charged with the present state of things, and it is at least questionable whether the evils complained of can be removed by legislation. To succeed, it is evident that our cotton factories must manufacture those fabrics most in demand. If, after glutting the markets with coarse fabrics, they still continue to manufacture them, they must expect to fail, and no legislation could help them. Undoubtedly a higher tariff would help them some, but it would not obviate the necessity of manufacturers adapting their fabrics to the demand and supply of the various markets.

Our cotton manufacturers are at present much affected by the importations of foreign cottons. The value of cotton goods imported into this country, after deducting the amount re-exported, was, in

1844	$13,286,830	1848	$17,205,417
1845	13,360,729	1849	15,182,518
1846	12,857,422	1850	19,685,986

During the year 1850, the value of the cotton goods exported from this country was $4,734,424.

It is a curious fact in the history of the agricultural products of the earth, that cotton, which now yields to this country a profit of from $30 to $40,000,000 annually, was almost a worthless plant only sixty-six years ago. Mr. T. Coxe, a writer in Rees' Encyclopædia, says, that in 1786 cotton was only seen growing in gardens in this country. Cotton crops and cotton planters, at that time, were quite unknown. Not a single bale of cotton was exported from this country before 1787, that is, of this country's growth. We find in Smither's History of Liverpool, pages 129, 153, an account of the first exportations of cotton from this country, as follows:

1770	3 bales	from	New-York.
"	4 bags	"	Virginia.
"	3 barrels	"	North-Carolina.
1784	8 bales	"	" America."
1785	5 "	"	"
1786	6 "	"	"

All of this cotton was from the Spanish Main, or the West Indies. The eight bales marked " America," on arriving in England, were seized, it being presumed that so large a quantity of cotton could not come from America. It would seem that as late as 1794, Mr. Jay, when making the treaty with England at that time, was not aware that any cotton was exported from the United States.* The first export of our own cotton, according to M'Culloch, was in 1790. It was in small packages, called "pockets."

The prices of cotton at first were very high. In England, in 1789, it was 22 pence per pound. In America it was as follows:

1790	14½	cents.	1796	36½	cents.	1802	19	cents.
1791	26	"	1797	34	"	1803	19	"
1792	29	"	1798	39	"	1804	20	"
1793	32	"	1799	44	"	1805	23	"
1794	33	"	1800	28	"	1806	22	"
1795	36½	"	1801	44	"	1807	21½	"

From 1807 cotton declined until 1814, when it was 15 cents; 1815, 21; 1816, 29½; 1817, 26½; 1818, 34. It then declined to 15 cents in 1824, and in 1825 rose to 21 cents. It then declined to 9½ cents in 1827, and was not over 10¼ until 1833, when it became 11; 1834, 13; and in 1835, 16½.

The United States export more raw cotton than all the rest of the world. For the last five years our exports have been as follows:

1846	$42,787,341
1847	53,415,848
1848	61,898,294
1849	66,596,887
1850	71,984,616
1851	over 100,000,000†

Europe paid the United States, in 1850, the enormous sum of $71,984,616, besides what she paid to other cotton-growing nations. Our home consumption is, at present, 539,000 bales; that of England, 1,472,000; that of France, 363,000. All the rest of Europe together consume about as much as France. England, therefore, uses up more than one-half of all the cotton raised on the earth; but all the people of Great Britain and her dependencies do not use as many manufactured cotton goods as the people of the United States. Our home consumption exceeds that of all Europe.

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* Letter of the Secretary of the Treasury, Document No. 146, p. 33.

† We have not yet the Secretary's return—shall hereafter give it.

ART. II.—THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, AND THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO,

PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND—MALACCA—SINGAPORE—CULTIVATION OF RICE IN INDIA, &C.

By the term "Straits Settlements," is understood all that part of the Hon. East India Company's possessions situated in various unconnected spots, within the area of lat. 1° 17′ to 5° 25′ north, and 100° 25′ to 104° east long., Greenwich. These settlements embrace the island of Pulo Pinang, known also as Prince of Wales Island, together with its adjacent territory of Province Wellesley, Malacca, and, lastly, the Island of Singapore. Each of these Anglo-Indian possessions is under the administration of three resident councilors, having, as superior, a "Governor of the Straits Settlements." All these appointments, as well as many of the inferior posts, have hitherto been subject to the control of the Bengal supreme government; but new arrangements are announced in the English papers.

These colonies differ slightly in climate, but all are more or less adapted to the purposes of intertropical agriculture. Hurricanes are unknown; and though occasionally strong squalls may visit those localities, the harm they do seldom extends to more than shaking off the fruit from the trees, and breaking down some tender saplings. These lands owe the exuberant vegetation which covers them to the humidity of the climate throughout. Rains likewise fall more or less copiously at intervals. Thus the "oldest inhabitant" informs us, that at Pulo Pinang rain fell almost every day betwixt October, 1789, and June, 1790; whilst from the government statistics it appears that rain fell for 145 days between May, 1833, and April, 1834, inclusive; the pluviameter marking it as follows during the last named period:—

	in. 10ths.
Pinang Flagstaff hill,.........	116·6
" Plain,.................	65·5
Province Wellesley,.........	79·1½

The mean temperature during the 24 hours is 80½ Fahr.

The soil of Pinang and Singapore consists for the most part of decomposed granite. The alluvial soil, owing to the absence of large streams, is almost entirely confined to some tracts of low-lying rice grounds.

In Province Wellesley the soil is by no means uniform in quality. The coast line exhibits a narrow sandy belt of low land to the northward and eastward, while to the southward the arable and habitable tracts are hemmed in, excepting at a few points, by broad mud flats, covered with mangrove trees, and which are flooded by tides at high-water. Beyond the Sandy Belt and Mangrove Jungle, are extensive alluvial tracts under rice cultivation, alternating with ridges of light soil running parallel to the coast. These ridges, in the centre of the province, and towards the Siamese frontier, give place to irregular shaped dry alluvial plains, stretching north and south. A few hills of moderate elevation are scattered throughout this district. The soil of the alluvial plains and rice grounds is superior in fertility to lands of the same class in Pinang or Singapore. Extensive roads have been, and continue to be, still made in Province Wellesley, to facilitate intercourse, and three large rivers, besides numerous creeks, afford ready access to many parts of the country. The government laborers are *convicts*, the "Straits Settlements" being now-a-days the penal colonies for the Hindostanic empire. Dry waste lands, fit for plantations in these localities, may be obtained from the government on leases of forty years' tenure, at a quit rent, varying according to locality, but not on the average exceeding 90 cents for every 1¼ acre, or two rupees per orlong.

The island of Pinang contains about 85,000 acres, one-fourth of which may be said to be under cultivation. In 1836, exclusive of the church and public buildings, the value of real estate within the precincts of Pinang town was estimated at $800,000. It has more than doubled in value since. The value of the extensive nutmeg plantations in these spots of the Anglo-Indian possessions cannot easily be estimated.

There is a good main road stretching from one end of Pulo Pinang to the other, and intersecting the cultivated tracts, besides which there are numerous coast roads. Province Wellesley, like most young countries, has its inconveniences. Among these may be enumerated musquitoes and tigers. These denizens of the forest very naturally follow agricultural man, since besides being enabled, each in their way, to discuss the merits of Chinamen's legs, they can easily help themselves to his cattle, poultry and dogs. The tiger makes "*small bones*" about walking off with a grunter or two; and it is very laughable to behold the expression of mute indignation on the visage of a Chinese farmer, when he discovers of a morning the terror-striking footprints around his piggery. During my numerous peregrinations in the Malayan jungles, I have repeatedly heard tigers on the move within 50 yards; but, owing to the denseness of the undergrowth, I never had the satisfaction of meeting with them but once, and that was in hunting with a friend, when a tiger broke cover close to us, and was at once presented with a couple of probably innocuous rifle shots. Trapping tigers is a highly profitable vocation of the natives, for, apart from the bounty paid for each head by the authorities, the whole body, together with the offal, is saleable to the Chinese doctors at 40 cents a pound. Tiger's meat, &c., enters largely into the Chinese Pharmacopœia, as an infallible recipe to make a Chinaman *brave*. Whether its effects are such upon Chinese or other races, deponent knoweth not.

Strangers visiting Pulo Pinang and Malacca, have to depend at first more upon private hospitality than on the accommodation in taverns. In the "Straits Settlements," moderately-sized houses are to be hired unfurnished at ten to thirty dollars per month. Provisions are cheap. The furniture necessary to fit up a bachelor establishment ought not to exceed $150; and $39 are sufficient to pay the wages for a servant, cook, butler, groom, and washer*man* per mensem. In most celibatory establishments there is, nevertheless, what is called a "Noonah" female housekeeper. The sights in Pinang are but few. There is the Flagstaff hill, from which a most magnificent view can be obtained of the opposite coast of the Malayan Peninsula, with its massive chains of mountains in the distant background. Here, amid the mists of an elevation of 2,200 feet, and in a temperature often as low as 65°, the Anglo-Indian convalescent renovates his constitution, if not so far shaken as to require a more bracing air. The rose, and other flowers of northern climes, here also remind him of European scenes, whilst the beautiful fir tree of this region serves to aid the illusion. The geologist will not find much to interest him, unless he penetrates the Peninsula; but the botanist will be puzzled where to commence his investigations in the ample field spread out before him. The zoologist will not want employment; but the conchologist, in addition to the rarest shells, will more than probably catch the—jungle fever.

It was in Pinang that I first tasted the celebrated Doorian, (Durio Zebethinus,) so quaintly described, if my memory serves, by Dampier, "as the deliciously stinking Doorian." Fancy a fruit about the size of a large green cocoa-nut, containing twelve to fifteen seeds as big as a chestnut, and covered with a whitish creamy pulp. Imagine that your olfactory nerves are suddenly offended on opening it, as if with exhalations from putrescent animal matter, seasoned with a strong dash of assafœtida. Such is the Doorian's *smell* to the beginner. But the taste! no combination of vanilla, ice-cream, guavas, strawberries and every thing else that in fruit is accounted delicious, will bear comparison with the Doorian. It is the prince—no, the *emperor* of fruits! Talk of nectar and ambrosia! I would willingly walk an entire day to partake of what is styled a Doorian feast; and the Malay who earns his pittance of $5 per month, frequently expends a dollar upon Doorians, when they first come into market, notwithstanding that he may be forced to economize during ten days in consequence of his gormandizing and extravagance. This fruit is considered highly aphrodisiac, and as such is used to a large extent by the Mohammedan rulers about the Archipelago.

Malacca, owing to the superior capabilities of Singapore as regards anchorage, has sadly fallen off from her pristine greatness, when under the Portuguese and Dutch rule. Tin is found there in large quantities, and gold has also been worked to advantage. To end their days, and be buried in their beloved Malacca, is the aspiration of a large class of the Straits' inhabitants; I mean of what are equivocally called native-born Chinese, who descend from emigrants and are born under the English rule. They dislike returning to the land of their forefathers, for fear that the Mandarins should "makee too muchee squeezee my;" which in plain English signifies, that the Mandarins or magistrates, as the term implies in Portuguese, on becoming aware of the return of a wealthy Chinaman, should mulct him, by threats of imprisonment, or severer penalties, for imaginary misconduct.

In Malacca, spices and cocoa-nuts are cultivated largely, but the growth of rice forms the chief agricultural pursuit of the natives, to be detailed further on.

To the profound wisdom and liberal policy of the lamented Sir Stamford Raffles, does the British nation owe its flourishing colony of Singapore. Sir S. Raffles, contrary to the exclusive system of his government, made the port of Singapore free from the expense of harbor dues and the vexatious imposts of customs. Enormous have been the advantages that have accrued to this petty isle, hardly fifteen miles in diameter, in consequence of those free trade measures. Another cause of prosperity arises from its unique geographical position, placed as it is on the high road of vessels from America and Europe to China, almost within speaking distance of Hindoostan. The present great intercourse with the whole of the Indian Archipelago will receive, in about a year's time from now, unprecedented impetus from bi-monthly steam communication with New-Holland and Australia. Some thirty years ago, a few miserable fishing huts were all that was to be seen where now are visible rich and splendid buildings, gardens, and plantations; whilst from a population of a few hundred Malays, it has increased at the present day to upwards of 70,000 prosperous settlers of all nations. The amount of tonnage that arrived at Singapore during the years 1819–20, was but 49,000 tons; and during the official year of 1849–50, the government reports have swelled to 270,931 tons. In 1823–24, the value of cotton piece goods imported was estimated at $692,496—and of woolens, $45,000. In 1849–50, these two articles had increased, the first up to $1,435,790, and the second to $136,533, owing to the enormous increase of the Chinese population alone. In Singapore the local authorities, in 1847, disposed of their opium farm, for one year's license, at the extraordinary price of $146,643.

There are several large and comfortable hotels at this port, together with an infinitude of boarding-houses. The place supports also a small but neat theatre, a race-course, and several handsome places of worship, including the Hindoo pagodas, Chinese joss-houses, and Moslem mosques. An Episcopal church there has undergone strange mutations. Destined in the first instance for a theatre and assembly room, some of the more seriously disposed Scotch subscribers metamorphosed the building into a Presbyterian meeting-house. During a pastoral visit of the Lord Bishop of Calcutta, it was suggested that in presenting their edifice to the E. I. Co., the communicants would be able to save the expense of a clergyman, inasmuch as the government, so this knowing Churchman discoursed, would provide an expounder free of cost; but the wary bishop had never indicated that the clerical incumbent was to belong exclusively to the Church of England: so that when the subscribers, for parsimony's sake, made over the building, they found themselves in a fool's paradise.

Besides some 2,000 Hindostanee convicts from all parts of Asia, Singapore, from the very central position it occupies in the Indian seas, furnishes more extensive varieties of the "genus homo" than any other point of the globe. Leaving aside the aboriginal inhabitants of the Peninsula, one encounters Chinamen, Burmese, Siamese, Tonquinese, Cochin-chinese, many of the Polynesian races, and numerous members of most of European and African peoples.

The Chinese number on the island about 45,000. They consist of those born on the island as well as of some from the Hoke-in province, whilst others are Tio-chin and Khé. Amongst themselves they distinguish each other under the following designations: Su, those whose profession is to teach, the literati in fact; Long, the husbandmen; Kong, mechanics; and Siang, merchants and shopkeepers.

During the prevalence of the north-east monsoon, each year brings from the Celestial Empire some ten thousand emigrants to the port of Singapore. In 1847–48, there arrived 108 junks and 11 square-rigged vessels, with 10,475 Chinamen. Few of these emigrants being able to pay their passage money, speculators purchased them at $10 a head for one year's servitude. They are then transshipped to Pinang, Malacca, Borneo, Java, and other parts of the Archipelago, as far down as South Australia. California and Valparaiso have now become ports to receive these "Redemptioners."

From calculations made of the quantity of opium used per annum, which averages 240 chests, there must be at least 15,000 out of the population of 45,000 Chinese at Singapore, who make use of this honesty-corrupting, no less than noctiferous drug. I say corrupting, because opium, being far more seductive than alcoholic drinks, privation from it, through poverty, will lead men to perpetrate heinous offences against society, more readily than ordinary drunkenness.

Assuming this estimate to be correct, there must be, where the population reaches nearly 400 *millions*, at least 3,000,000 opium smokers in the Celestial empire; because, in 1845, 40,000 chests were imported into that vast country. But if, instead of repressing the curse, the Chinese government offered facilities similar to those which opium smokers enjoy at Singapore, under the most Christian rule of H. M. Queen Victoria, there would be above 92 millions of opium smokers in the Chinese dominions. In Java, the Dutch government considers that there are 93,866 opium smokers on the island, or one in every ninety-five persons, out of a population of *nine millions.*

All religious creeds are tolerated in the Straits Settlements. Several Protestant missionaries have been settled there for years. The benefit hitherto accruing to the colony, from their exertions, is discoverable solely in the yearly increase of the juvenile Anglo-Indian inhabitants. Conversions, it need scarcely be observed, are out of the question; but at Singapore, as in many other missionary establishments that I have met with in my Oriental peregrinations, *hopes most sanguine*, of future converts, are expressed in print, as regularly as quarter-day comes round. Far different, however, is the case with the results of the Roman Catholic missionaries, who number in Singapore some 500 converted Chinamen. The Celestials, previously to being received into the bosom of Mother Church, have to undergo a year's probation, in order that they may wean themselves from opium smoking and gambling. Catholicism, herein, has performed marvels at the colony.

Sporting is much pursued at the Straits, by the Europeans, during the rainy season. Snipe, especially, are very plentiful at Singapore, and I have seen twenty brace bagged in a morning by one gun. On crossing to the main land, teal, gray plover, curlews, red partridge, pheasants, jungle-fowl, &c., are easily met with—elephants, rhinoceroses, tapirs, and wild cattle, are hunted in the Peninsula.

The only description of chase followed at Singapore is deer of three species, tigers, and wild hogs. I have been a participator in the field obsequies of seventy-five wild hogs; of one, the tusks measured eleven inches in length. In hunting large game, the plan usually pursued is to collect about 100 men, (generally convicts,) with about thirty dogs, and station them, in an extended semi-circle, to windward of the spot to be beaten. When the sportsmen have taken their stations to leeward, the beaters, on a given signal, advance; and amid an infernal din of gongs, yells, and fire-crackers, joined to the baying of the dogs, the game is frightened on, to where are concealed the hunters, and falls beneath their rifles.

Fishing throughout the Archipelago is excellent, though often carried on in an unsportsmanlike manner. On the north-west coast of Borneo, after the rice crop is housed, the chiefs generally give a "spree," and it often terminates with the whole population of the place going down to the sea-side on a gigantic fishing excursion. There they collect quantities of a root, called "tubbà," and select the mouth of some small river, not broader than a quarter of a mile, as the spot whereon to commence operations. The tubbà is macerated in a boat, filled up to the gunwale with water, and just as the flood tide is about commencing, the boat is upset, so as to impregnate the water with the tubbà decoction. The effect on the fish is electrical; they are at once intoxicated, bounce out of the water, and become an easy prey to the Bornean spearsmen, who, standing in their light canoes, project the bamboo lances, of twenty feet in length, with most unerring precision. It is capital sport, except to the fish: sometimes very laughable, from the awkward accidents that take place from over-excitement in the chase, such as losing one's equilibrium, and tumbling oneself and lance into the water.

I stated, in a few pages back, that rice was cultivated to some extent in Malacca. The following sketch will explain the usual process of cultivation, together with its accompanying ceremonies, in that particular locality, as well as throughout the Malayan peninsula.

The grain season commences about August, just, in fact, before the north-east monsoon, during which time rain is supposed to be more frequent than during the south-west monsoon. The Malays cultivate two descriptions of rice—*wet rice*, and *dry*, or *upland rice*.

The varieties of wet rice are considerable, and distinguished with great nicety by the Malays. At first a foreigner might be disposed to think these people fanciful in their separations of qualities; but on narrower inspection, the different kinds of rice are observed to possess distinct features. Sixteen varieties of sawah, or *wet rice*, some five of which are honored with the title of Sri, most excellent, ripen in seven months. Three kinds come to maturity in eight months, and sixteen others in six months. There is also a description of rice, introduced from China, called Panget-so, which ripens in one hundred days. The Malays do not attempt the double cropping in vogue on the continent of India. They have no tanks, and only at a few spots the latter could be made. The Malays are obstinate in asserting that, even were water abundant, the rice sown in their part of the world will not fructify until after the north-east monsoon, or rainy season, has passed. The Malays never manure their rice fields, nor is there any occasion for so doing, the field being allowed to lie fallow from six to eight months in the year. The highest rate of productiveness per one and one-third of an acre, is stated to be 600 gantangs of paddy, equivalent to 783 bushels.

When seed-time arrives, four gantangs* are sown, upon a well-watered and cleared spot of land, of the extent of a sixteenth part of an orlong.† In about forty days the plants attain sufficient growth to admit of their being transplanted to the Bindang, or paddy field. The task of transplanting is commonly performed by the women. Before the seed is sown in the nursery, it is twice measured, in order to ascertain that no grains have *escaped* supernaturally. The Samai or rice plants are pulled up by the roots, in bunches of sufficient size to be easily grasped with one hand—the roots are rapidly cleaned with the other, and the tops cut off. A few of the whitish stalks are then selected, and carried separately to the field Ayer Bedak; a fragrant cosmetic, dissolved in water, is now sprinkled over the ground, in order to propitiate the spirit of the paddy, the Malayan goddess Ceres, for whom the Malays have no distinct appellative, but express their meaning by the words Samangat Paddy, which implies that the spirit of the paddy vanishes through terror, when not conciliated. The spot on the field where such propitiatory evocations are made, is styled Bumi Putra—Prince's Ground. The selected stalks are placed on a rest, along with offerings of dressed eggs, rice, sugar-cane, cocoanuts, and sweetmeats. These offerings are generally left on the spot.

One of the singular customs that may be observed at these settlements, amongst a population composed, as stated before, of various races, is a species of search for Ceres, or Proserpine, by the Chinese. They call it a search for charmed roots and medicinal substances. Four men carry on their shoulders a small painted wooden, or bamboo box, with a canopy, and open in front. In this box is an image of Choo-Sookong, one of their deified mortals. A Tuzzuzen, or physician, heads the procession, and the whole party tread over the fields in double quick time.

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* A measure containing 256 cubic inches.

† One orlong is equal to one and one-third of an acre.

In planting the rice-seedlings, the husbandman is provided with a short stick, forked at the end. Inserting in the fork from five to nine stalks or plants, he pushes it down into the mud, to the depth of from three to six inches, according to the nature of the soil. Superstition enjoins that extreme decorum should be observed pending the operation, and that no one should speak, during the planting of every seven bunches. These bunches are set at distances, varying from half a foot to one foot and a half apart. In the richest soils, even two feet might be allowed, as the bunches expand sufficiently to cover the intervals. The owner afterwards inspects his field occasionally; sees that it has the requisite quantity of water; at the same time, he destroys weeds and vermin. As the ear begins to fill, he stretches ropes over the field, to which are attached scarecrows; and he erects a high covered perch, wherein one of his family constantly watches, at the risk often of being made a meal of by some prowling tiger. Rats, which occasionally appear in great numbers, contrive to levy heavy on the crop. The water is allowed gradually to drain off, in order to hasten the filling up of the ear. The grain is cut with a sickle, when it has been bent down by its own weight or by the wind.

During harvest, the Malay cultivator is in his glory. Elderly matrons are then seen, with conical straw hats, plucking the ears of corn; the married women, and spinsters of a certain age, are left to the distaff, loom, and other household duties. The Malays hold sacred the first days of harvest, and the presiding spirit is again invoked and propitiated. These days are Pantang, or Tabooed in New-Zealand phraseology, termed Pamali by the Dyaks of Borneo. No person is admitted into the house, nor must any one leave it during that period, but for the purpose of bathing and fetching water. After this is over, an iron nail is carried to the field, to avert some planetary influence. It is there stuck into the earth, and left till the grain is cut. The nail is afterwards placed in the granary, as a charm to prevent the paddy taking fright and vanishing, or becoming Samangat. A rude altar is now erected in the field, on which offerings of fruits and perfumes are laid; a white cloth is thrown over them, and the peasant invokes the Spirit in the following strain:

Marelah Ché, marelah Tuan,
Hundah palang malegei, mas malegei perak,
Lama suda main ungin dan ombak,
Tumpat iyang sinnang, iyang selesa.

Come, O young Lord and Master,
Return to the gold and silvery palace;
Long hast thou disported in the breeze and rippling waters,
Return now to a place of repose and enjoyment.

The harvest-home is celebrated by games, theatricals, and other festivities, among which is buffalo-fighting; but that combat being disallowed, by law, in the British territories, where it is considered equivalent to bull-baiting, is only witnessed in Malayan lands under native rule. A Spaniard would think the sport exceedingly tame, no barbarities being practised. The buffaloes are successively led into the arena by pairs, and, when sufficiently close, "come to the scratch" of their own accord. They rarely exceed five minutes in fighting, and never do much harm to each other. The only science displayed by a veteran bull, is to introduce one of his horns under the lower jaw of his adversary, and, by twisting his opponent's neck, bring him on his side to the ground. The defeated buffalo rarely runs a second tilt, but rapidly makes off, without any attempt at pursuit on the part of the victor.

Oomah, or upland rice cultivation, is not a very favorite style of raising rice by the Malays. They have four species of this grain that ripen in 4 months, six in 5, and two in 6 months. On commencing a field, the primitive forest is cut down, and the timber burned. Holes are made in the virgin soil with a sharp stake, and four or five seeds of paddy are dropped in each, but they are not covered with earth. This cultivation is often mixed with Indian corn, gourds and cucumbers. The cost of clearing one acre will be about $12. The land then must lie fallow for a year; when it will again cost about $10 per acre to clear it from the brushwood, which, in that part of our globe, grows with extreme rapidity. Most of the ceremonies incidental to the Sawah cultivation are also used in the Oomah.

The cultivator, during the fallow season, directs his attention to sundry other modes of gain. He may hunt the elephant for his ivory; the rhinoceros, for his horn and hide; or trap the tiger. Should his taste be not so adventurous, he may turn fowler. The catching and preserving the skins, with the feathers on, of the larger kinds of kingfishers, is often a lucrative employment. The skins find a remunerating market in China, where they serve for embroidering dresses. The fowler having caught a burong pukaka, or kingfisher, puts it into a cage furnished with a trap-door, or merely ties it by the leg to a peg. A thin net is suspended over the bird, which soon begins to utter discordant screams; this attracts other kingfishers, and as these successively attack the caged bird, they are entrapped. The fowler, whenever a new bird is caught, substitutes it for the preceding one, because it makes a greater noise.

ART. III.—PHENOMENA OF NATURE.*

The present age of the world is characterized, as the result of its greater advancement in knowledge, rather by a cautiousness and distrust of its intellectual powers, than by that bold presumption and vanity always attendant on ignorance, which so strongly marked the intellect of the ancients. Attempts at generalizations, with a view of arriving at final causes, are, it is true, among the first promptings of the soul, and those promptings the mind can with difficulty resist. Hence the repeated attempts of the ancient philosophers to reduce all the phenomena of the universe to one principle of explanation; to discover the connecting links of all things; their causal connection; to grasp in one view the entire domain of nature; "to discover the one universal idea to which all phenomena, in their causal connection, might be reduced as to a sole principle."

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* Cosmos: A Sketch of a Physical Description of the Universe. By Alexander Von Humboldt; vol. iii., 1851. Harper & Brothers, New-York.

Such vain attempts began with the earliest philosophers, and have been from time to time continued down to the present age. Indeed, the history of philosophy presents but little else but such attempts; so that if we may venture a generalization, those attempts may be regarded as the legitimate results of the natural mode of the human mind in prosecuting its investigations of the Cosmos.

The error of the ancients and of all philosophers has ever been, that of supposing that they had acquired a sufficient number of facts to justify an attempt at generalization. The *Cosmos* of ALEXANDER VON HUMBOLDT, the third and last volume of which is now before us, is the only elaborate attempt at cosmography that has been given to the world: conceived in a proper spirit, and executed in a manner to present a faithful picture of nature, not so crowded with minor objects as to prevent the most important ones from standing out in bold relief.*

The great difficulty with all writers on *Cosmography*, hitherto, has been a too limited acquaintance with *Cosmology*, for the two terms are not synonymous. In this latter, and all-essential respect, Humboldt has had greatly the advantage. A long life of unremitting study, unrestrained by the bitterness of poverty, but on the other hand, aided by every support that affluence and even the patronage of kings could confer, has stored the capacious mind of Baron Von Humboldt with all the vast scientific and intellectual treasures of this transcendent age. Illuminated by all the learning and brilliant discoveries and inventions of the 19th century, his mind has learned to despise the presumption of the ancients, and to see that it is the height of folly to aim at anything more than a faithful delineation of what little of Cosmos science has thus far revealed, although that little is a vast ocean of knowledge, when compared with that possessed by earlier philosophers.

In the first two volumes of the Cosmos, Humboldt has confined himself to two objects only: 1st, the presentation of the simple objectiveness of external phenomena; and secondly, to the exhibition of the intellectual results of the impressions made by the external world upon the inner man, upon his speculative portion, his understanding and reason; besides delineating a general picture of Nature in her two great spheres, the unanalogical and the telluric; thus tracing with a master-hand the outlines of objects from the stars that twinkle amid the nebulæ in the remotest realms of visible space, down to our own little planetary system—but a grain of sand on the boundless shores of the universe—and even down to the configurations of the earth's surface; the fossil remains of the earth's great store-book; and still farther down, to the minutest organisms that float in the sunbeams; and to the world of animalcules that, unseen by the naked eye, sport in so many objects on the earth's surface, he includes, as an equally legitimate portion of the Cosmos, the boundless domain of the world of thought; the inner reflex of the outer world; the mental accumulations of thousands of years. And why, indeed, should he not? For what are the phenomena of the external world, without those elaborations, those products of the spiritual labor of the inner man, which the understanding has wrought out from the rough materials presented to it by the external world?

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* The first two volumes of Cosmos were reviewed somewhat at length in our volumes of last year.

In this last volume Humboldt gives his latest touches to his great cosmical picture, by devoting it to the consideration of the special results of observations in the domain of cosmical phenomena; but before attempting to unfold this portion of his work, we will briefly sketch the labors of cosmologists who have preceded him, as given in the introduction.

An active striving has existed in all ages to discover a principle that would explain all that is variable in the organic world, and many have vainly believed that they had attained to this; but all their labors have amounted to nothing, save to develop their ignorance, and to prove that the object of their toils is "past finding out." Men for a long time, in accordance with the earliest ideas of the Hellenic races, venerated the agency of spirits embodied in human forms, in the creative, changing, and destructive processes of nature; and this finally led to the scientific contemplation and philosophy of the Ionic school. This gross paganism, Aristotle tells us, was "The relics of an earlier acquired and subsequently lost wisdom;" to which he frankly tells us, "Much was mythically added for the *persuasion of the multitude*, as also on account of the laws, and for other useful ends."

The Ionic school traced the first principle of the origin of things to either concrete material principles, the so-called *elements* of nature, or to the processes of rarefaction and condensation. Something similar to this is found in certain cosmical theories of the present day, in which caloric is made the principal agent of force, if not the very essence of matter itself—a mere revival of the old Ionic philosophy. The hypothesis of four or five materially different elements, probably of Indian origin, was undoubtedly ancient in the time of Empedocles, 450 B.C., though he is said to be the first who spoke of them as distinct species of matter. He, too, had formed a sweeping generalization—he had his Cosmos—and had arrived at the conclusion that originally all was one—God, eternal and at rest,—that the elements of things were held together in undistinguishable confusion by love, (φιλια,) the primal force uniting like to like, and sundered by another primal force, νεικος, or strife. The whole of his philosophy was equally fanciful and absurd.*

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* Anthon, Art. Empedocles.

At a later period of the development of the Ionic philosophy, Anaxagoras, of Clazomenæ, who was contemporary with Pericles, had advanced from the pantheism of Empedocles to the idea of spirit, independent of all matter, but uniting and distributing the homogeneous particles of which matter is composed. This spirit he called the world-arranging Intelligence, (νοῦς) the primary source of all motion and all physical phenomena. Anaxagoras devoted much time to mathematics and astronomy. He believed the sun and moon composed of earth, and had right views of the moon's light, and of solar and lunar eclipses. His opinions were considered impious to the gods, and he was cast into prison. He explained the names of the gods allegorically, and gave a moral exposition of the myths of Homer. Simplicius, whose Commentaries are extremely valuable, from their containing numerous fragments of the works of ancient philosophers, cites a very remarkable passage from Anaxagoras, from which it appears that the latter had a correct idea of the motion of the heavenly bodies about a centre. The passage reads: "The heavenly bodies do not fall, in consequence of the centrifugal force being superior to the inherent falling force of bodies, and to their downward tendency." This shows that Anaxagoras, 450 B. C., knew something of centrifugal and centripetal forces, and of gravitation.* He believed that the heavenly bodies revolved from east to west. Whether the Intelligence (νοῦς) of Anaxagoras was the Godhead divine, or merely a pantheistic principle pervading all matter, is a question with commentators.

Plutarch seems to have had some idea of centrifugal and centripetal forces; for, in his work entitled *De Facie in Orbe Lunæ*, he compares the moon, in consequence of its not falling to the earth, to "a stone in a sling."

Next came, to contrast with the philosophy of Empedocles and Anaxagoras, the mathematical symbolism of the Pythagoreans, which also embraced the whole universe. In the world of physical phenomena, the attention of the Pythagoreans was solely directed to what is normal in configuration—the five elementary forms—to the ideas of numbers, measures, harmony, and contrarieties. Numbers they believe to be the imitative representations of all things—typical of eternity, and of the infinitude of nature, because of their illimitability, and boundless capacity for repetition. The essence of things they believe to lie in the form of numerical relations, and that their alterations and metamorphoses were the results of numerical combinations. Plato referred the nature of all substances in the universe, and their different stages of metamorphoses, to corporeal forms, and these again to the simplest triangular plane figures. As to the ultimate elements of matter, Plato made no pretensions. "God alone," says he, "knows what they are."

Aristotle depicts all the phenomena of nature as moving, vital agents, of one general cosmical force.† Heaven and nature depend on the "unmoved motus of the universe"—on the world-orderer and world-sustainer. Plato contended that the ultimate course of all sensuous changes must be something non-sensuous, and distinct from all matter. He makes unity a main principle in the different expressions of material force, always reducing these expressions to motions. In Aristotle's *De Insomniis*, speaking of sight, he says: "It is evident, that sight is no less an active than a passive agent, and that vision not only experiences some action from the air, (the medium,) but itself also acts upon the medium." In support of this, Aristotle maintains, that a new and a very pure metallic mirror will, under *certain conditions*, when looked at by a *woman*, retain on its surface cloudy specks that cannot be removed without difficulty. Humboldt thinks that he discovers in this the germ of the undulatory theory of light, now so generally received. It is to be regretted that Aristotle has not told us what the certain conditions are in his experiment with the metallic mirror, and why the eyes of a man will not do as well as those of a woman. Aristotle, we think, must have had some peculiar notions about "woman's eyes."

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* Cosmos, vol. iii., p. 12.

† Cosmos, vol. iii., p. 13.

Aristotle, in all his investigations and reasonings, includes the whole of nature, and the internal connection not only of forces but of organic forms, maintaining that throughout all animated beings there is a scale of gradation from the lowest to the highest forms, nature advancing in an uninterrupted progressive course of development from inanimate matter to plants and animals, the gradations being almost imperceptible. Where a link is wanting in the chain, he supposes that they may be perhaps found to occur in the moon—a very easy mode of supplying the defects of one's ignorance. The great cosmical problem that Aristotle endeavored to solve, was the unity of nature. The author of the "Vestiges of Creation" undoubtedly derived some hints from the philosophy of the Stagirite. Aristotle's inquiries were directed almost exclusively to motion—seldom to differences in matter; and his fundamental idea was, that all telluric natural phenomena are due to the impulse given by the movement of the heavens—the rotation of the celestial sphere. "By the movement of the heavenly sphere," says he, "all that is unstable in natural bodies, and all terrestrial phenomena, are produced.'

In Aristotle's philosophy there was no pantheism. He viewed the Godhead as "the highest ordering unity," omnipresent, determining the nature of all formations, and holding together all things as an absolute power; also attended by *astral spirits*, who maintained the planets in their eternal orbits. Aristotle believed the stars to be active, living beings, and the most divine of created things, τα θειοτερα των φανερων. (*Aristot. De Cœlo, lib. i., cap.* 9.)

Such were some of the cosmical views of antiquity, in their vain attempts to reduce all of the phenomena of the universe to one principle of explanation. The attempt has never been relinquished. In coming down to the close of the thirteenth century, passing over the intellectual movements of centuries, which, however, did not advance science much, if any, we find the labors of Aristotle renewed, in the *Opus Majus* of Roger Bacon, the *Mirror of Nature* of Vincenzo de Beauvais, the *Liber Cosmographicus* of Albertus Magnus, and in the *Imago Mundi* of Pierre d'Ailly—works that reflect to us the darkness of the age in which they were written. Humboldt complains that their contents do not fulfil "the promise of their titles." Among the Italians, Bernardino Telesio, of Cosenza, opposed Aristotle's physics, and substituted for them what he called a national science of nature. Some of our philosophers of the present day have made heat, or caloric, the great moving and generative force of the universe; but Bernardino Telesio, equally anxious to explain everything, considered all the phenomena and forms of matter as the result of two forces—heat and cold. The two forces, of which the former appertained to the celestial sphere, while the latter belonged to the terrestrial, originated all plants and animals. This Humboldt calls "unbridled fancy."

Giordano Bruno, a contemporary of Galileo, next attempted to comprehend the whole universe in three works. His cosmical views were purely metaphysical; and he formed many happy conjectures regarding the movements of the fixed stars, the planetary nature of comets, and the deviation, in the form of the earth, from that of a sphere.*

Though Anaxagoras, 450 B. C., and Plutarch, had some idea of gravitation, and of its connection with the motion of the heavenly bodies; and also Simplicius, of the seventh century, Aristotle's commentator, together with Joannes Philoponus, who ascribed the movements of the celestial bodies to "a primitive impulse, and a continued tendency to fall;" and though Copernicus had a general idea of gravitation, defining it as acting in the sun, as the centre of the planetary world, and in the earth and in the moon,† Kepler was the first who made any approach towards a mathematical application of the theory of gravitation, before the appearance of Newton's immortal *Principia Philosophiæ Naturalis.* He was the first, about seventy years before Newton, who gave numerical calculations of the forces of attraction reciprocally exercised upon each other, according to their relative masses, by the earth and moon.‡

Kepler distinctly adduces the tides, as evidence that the attractive force of the moon (*virtus tractoria*) extends to the earth, and that this force would deprive the earth of its waters if the earth should cease to attract them. "Si terra cessaret attrahere ad se aquos suas, aquæ marinæ omnes elevarentur et in lunæ corpus influerent."

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* He was burned at Rome, February 17th, 1600, after being two years confined in the Inquisition. When the sentence of death was announced, he nobly exclaimed:—"Majori forsitan cum timore sententiam in me fertis quam ego accipiam." He was a great admirer of Copernicus, Tycho Brahe, and Kepler.

† The words of Copernicus are as follows:—"Gravitatem non aliud esse quam appetentiam quandam naturalem partibus inditam a divina providentia opificis universorum, ut in unitatem integritatem—que suam sese conferant, in formam globi coeuntes."

‡ Humboldt gives from Kepler's *De Motibus Stellæ Martis* the following passage, from which Kepler's ideas regarding the reciprocal attraction of the heavenly bodies are evident:—"Si duo lapides in aliquo loco Mundi collocarentur propinqui invicem, extra orbem virtutis tertii cognati corporis; illi lapides ad similitude nem duorum magneticorum corporum coirent loco intermedio, quilibet accedens ad alterum tanto intervallo. quanta est alterius *moles* in comparatione. Si luna et terra non retinerentur vi animali [!] aut alia aliqua acquipollente, quælibet in suo circuitu, terra adscenderet ad lunam quinquagesima quarta parte intervalli, luna descenderet ad terram quinquaginta tribus circiter partibus intervalli; ibi jungerentur posito tamen quod substautia utrius-que sit unius et ejusdem densitatis."

It is singular that Kepler, the possessor of such correct views, and the discoverer of the three great laws of planetary motion, should have been led afterwards, in 1619, to renounce his correct theory of the tides, and to depict the earth, in his work entitled *Harmonice Mundi*, "as a living monster, whose whale-like mode of breathing occasioned the rise and fall of the ocean in recurring periods of sleeping and waking, dependent on solar time;" and this he does in the very work in which he gives the data for his third law, that the squares of the periodic times of two planets are as the cubes of their mean distance. He indulges in the wildest flights of fancy on the respiration, nutrition, and heat of the *earth-animal*, and on the soul, memory (memoriæ animæ terræ) and creative imagination (animæ telluris imaginatio) of the earth-monster.* Kepler believed so firmly in these chimeras, that he warmly contested his right of priority, in the views regarding the *earth-animal*, with the mystic author of the *Microcosmos*, Robert Fludd, of Oxford.

Descartes was the next who undertook the labors of a cosmographer. He tried to comprise the whole world of phenomena, the heavenly sphere, and all that he knew of inanimate and animate terrestrial nature, in a work entitled *Traité du Monde*, and also *Summa Philosophiæ*. These works were to have appeared in 1633, but the sentence of the Inquisition at Rome, passed upon Galileo, put a stop to Descartes' plans, and deprived the world of a great work, completed by a man who had laid the foundation of many departments of mathematical physics, and who was possessed not only of a great versatility of physical knowledge, but of immense learning.

The motives that restrained Descartes, says Humboldt, from publishing his Cosmos, were love of peaceful retirement in his secluded abode at Deventer, and a pious desire not to treat irreverently the decrees pronounced by the Holy Chair against the planetary movement of the earth; at least such were the reasons which he assigned in his letters to Father Mersenne. The substance, however, of his suppressed works, has since been published in detached portions.

The next cosmological effort was the *Cosmotheoros* of Huygens, which, however, did not appear until after his death. It consists, says Humboldt, of the dreams and fancies of a great man on the animal and vegetable worlds; of the most remote cosmical bodies, and especially of the modifications of form which the human race may there present. Emanuel Kant has borrowed from Huygens many of his dreams regarding the inhabitants of the planets. Huygens found difficulty in peopling the moon, since he believed it destitute both of air and water, like many astronomers of the present day.

Last of all came the author of the *Philosophiæ Naturalis Principia Mathematica*, the immortal NEWTON, who embraced the whole unanalogical portion of the Cosmos in the causal connection of its phenomena, by the assumption of one all-controlling fundamental moving force—gravitation. Of all the attempts that have been made to refer all physical phenomena to one fundamental principle, that of Newton, with his theory of gravitation, is the most comprehensive and richest in cosmical results. The problem, however, is very far from being solved. Though Newton referred the movements of all cosmical bodies to gravitation, he did not consider, like Kant and others, gravitation to be an *essential* property of bodies, but as the result of some higher and still unknown power, or of "the centrifugal force of the ether which fills the realms of space, and is rarer within bodies, but increases in density outward. I seek," says he, "the cause of gravity in the ether."* Newton, however, was very cautious in expressing himself in regard to the cause of gravitation. "Rationem parum gravitatis proprietatum," says he, "ex phænomenis nondum potui deducere, et hypotheses non fingo. Satis est quod gravitas revera existat et agat secundum leges a nobis expositas."†

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* Cosmos, vol. iii. p. 19.

Newton afterwards entirely relinquished this hypothesis of the rarer and denser ether.‡ In his *Optics* he says, "What I call attraction may be performed by *impulse*, or by some other means unknown to me. Bodies act one upon another by the attraction of gravity, magnetism, and electricity; and it is not improbable that there may be more attractive powers than these." It is evident from his writings, that Newton had nothing to offer concerning the cause of gravitation but vague conjecture. That it was the result of *impulse* from an ether filling all interplanetary spaces, cannot be inferred from his works. He certainly believed that the ether itself possessed gravity, as is seen by his 2d corollary of Theorem VI., Book iii., of the Principia.

Whatever others may think about the matter, we prefer the idea that gravitation is an essential property of bodies, since we cannot find or conceive of any kind of matter not subject to gravity. Kant says, "We cannot conceive the existence of matter without these forces of attraction and repulsion." We can just as easily conceive of matter without extension as without gravity, and therefore the one is just as essential as the other. Newton evidently knew nothing of the *cause* of gravitation; and, indeed, who is there that does? He thought the search for it vain, and contented himself with saying, "Satis est quod gravitas revera existat et agat secundum leges a nobis expositas."

Such is a brief sketch of the various attempts made with the view of considering the phenomena of the universe as a unity of nature. Such attempts are worthy of the human mind; but we know, as yet, too little of the boundless field of physical sciences to enable even a Humboldt to solve such a problem. Nature may be compared, in its totality, to a number composed of an infinite number of figures. As yet, the learning and observations of man have scarcely enabled him to master the units and tens of this vast numerical series of figures; and millions of years will probably elapse before we shall have arrived in the enumeration to the place of millions; and even then we shall have but just begun. To grasp the value of the whole number, we must know all the figures of which it is composed. To comprise, then, "in one organic whole the entire science of nature," is a thing to man impossible. The solution of such a grand and sublime problem belongs to the celestial mathematics of God alone; who, sitting upon high Olympus, can sweep with his golden compasses the entire domain of his creation. However humiliating it may be to the mind, man is destined to grope his way for millions of years to come, among a tangled mass of inferior initial problems and phenomena, many of which he will never be able to comprehend.

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* Letter to Robert Boyle, 1678.

† *Principia*, New-York ed. p. 506.

‡ Cosmos, vol. iii, p. 23.

In what light, indeed, we may contemplate nature, taken as a whole, or what little of it the eyes of man has yet seen, is a question that may well be considered. Can we, indeed, view it as a development? Nothing can be regarded as a development where causal connection cannot be traced; and how very limited is man's knowledge, as yet, of the causal connection of nature's phenomena! It is in respect to causal connection that man's knowledge fails. We can only thus far look upon phenomena as facts; but as to their causal connection, we know, in most cases, nothing. Hence so many, as yet, unsolved problems in physics; such as,—What is the cause of the apparently irregular distribution of the planets, in reference to size, density, inclination of axes, eccentricity of orbits, and the number and distance of their satellites? What is the cause of chemical differences of matter? and a great many other such questions. "Our knowledge of the primeval ages of the world's physical history," says Humboldt, "does not extend sufficiently far to allow of our depicting the present condition of things as one of development."

Science is complete only so far as causal connection is traced. To talk of taking a view of the entire domain of nature—of viewing nature as a whole, is an absurdity which can be excused only by the finiteness of man's intellectual nature.

In giving the special results of observations hitherto made in the domain of cosmical phenomena, Humboldt begins with Astrognosy, or the region of the fixed stars, so called, and assumes that nothing is stationary in space—a proposition that finds support from the fact, that it is now incontrovertibly proved that many of the stars have changed their positions. If ancient observations, in regard to the positions of the stars, may be relied on as correct, Arcturus, within the last 2,100 years, has moved a distance of 2½ times the moon's diameter; the star *u*, of Cassiopeiae, 3¼ lunar diameters; and 61 Cygni, 6 lunar diameters.

The limits assigned to us for this paper preclude our giving as extended a notice of the third volume of the Cosmos as we would wish to make; and we can, therefore, only indicate some of the heads of the subjects embraced in it. In discussing the astrognostic sphere, Humboldt enters into the consideration of the realms of space, the bodies known to occupy it, and discusses the many conjectures that have been made regarding what occupies the space between the heavenly bodies. It is remarkable that Aristotle doubted the infinity of space. It is conceded that all space is filled with something called ether. The revolutions of Encke's comet prove, indeed, some sort of resisting medium—an ether, by the vibrations of which the phenomena of light, and possibly of heat, electricity and magnetism, are produced. The ancients believed the ether to be of a fiery nature.

A curious dilemma was long since started, regarding the transmission of light from the stars. Since we cannot conceive of any point in the infinite regions of space, unoccupied by a fixed star—a sun—the entire vault of heaven ought to appear as luminous as our sun, if light were transmitted to us in perfect intensity; or, if such be not the case, we must assume that the intensity of light is diminished in passing through space, and, in a degree, greater than in the inverse ratio of the square of the distance. As the whole heavens are not almost uniformly illuminated by such a radiance of light, the regions of space, according to Struve and others, are not perfectly transparent.

The question, whether the atmosphere of the earth has any definite limit, Humboldt regards as partially, at least, settled by Farraday's experiments, which, he says, "have given considerable weight to the assumption of a definite surface of the atmosphere, similar to the surface of the sea."

Humboldt makes some very interesting observations on the dioptric tubes used by the Arabian astronomers, and probably by the Greeks and Romans, as the only substitute they had for telescopes. The ancients, as we learn from Seneca, knew the magnifying power of hollow glass spheres filled with water; but these spheres they never applied to the observation of the heavens. It is a remarkable fact, that the basis of a very important part of the astronomy of our planetary system was laid *before* the invention of the telescope. Humboldt observes, that the transition from natural to telescopic vision was more important to astronomy than the discovery of America to geography. What a wide world of thought has the telescope laid open! How has it, extending infinitely our insight into creation, strengthened the intellectual powers, enriched the sphere of human ideas, and ennobled humanity! What a splendor has it given to mathematical science, and to physical astronomy! It has advanced the astronomical knowledge of the solar system to that of a sublime system of the universe.

The ancients had very confused notions of space and the heavens. Empedocles supposed the vault of the heavens to be solid, and composed of *frozen air*, *aërem glaciatum*, as Lactantius has it. "The idea," says Humboldt, "of a crystalline vault of heaven, was handed down to the middle ages by the fathers of the Church, who believed the firmament to consist of from seven to ten glassa strata, incasing one another, like the different coatings of an onion. This supposition," says he, "still keeps its ground in some of the monasteries of Southern Europe, where I was greatly surprised to hear a venerable pre-late express an opinion, in reference to the fall of ærolites at Aigle, that the bodies which we call meteoric-stones, with vitrified crusts, were not portions of the fallen stone itself, but simply fragments of the crystal vault shattered by it in its fall."*

Humboldt devotes a large portion of his last volume of the Cosmos to the consideration of the scintillation of the stars, and the velocity of light and electricity; citing the labors of Mr. Walker, of this country, to the number, distribution, and color of the fixed stars; to the stellar masses and the milky-way, interspersed with nebulous spots; to new stars, and those that have vanished; to the variability of certain stars, as to color and intensity of light; under all of which heads he gives much that is highly curious and important. He adopts the opinion of Bessel, "the greatest astronomer of our time," that the celestial spaces are filled with vast numbers of immensely large, non-luminous, and invisible bodies. Such was the opinion of the immortal author of the *Mechanique Céleste.* "There exists," says Laplace, "in celestial space, dark bodies, probably in as great numbers as the stars."

In treating of the proper motions of the fixed stars, and the determination of their parallaxes, Humboldt discusses the mutually dependent problems of *the motion of the solar system*, and *the position of the centre of gravity in the heaven of the fixed stars.* The first admits of a satisfactory solution, since we are enabled to determine the parallaxes of certain stars. According to Peters, 33 parallaxes have already been discovered. The director of the Dorpat observatory has determined the positions and proper motions of more than 800 stars. Mädler has labored much at the solution of the second problem; but he has been obliged to confess, that his attempted solution is, in consequence of the many mutually compensating forces which enter into it, devoid "of anything like evidence amounting to a complete and scientifically certain proof."†

The translation in space of the whole solar system is now an established fact. The labors of Bessel, Struve, Mädler, Argelander, and many others, have placed this beyond a doubt. It is not, however, a new idea, for Bradley, in his labors on mutation, contained in his great work of 1748, speaks of the solar system changing its place; and also suggests methods of determining the fact. When we speak of a great centre of gravity (the heavenly bodies moving about no other kind of centre) about which our solar system, as a whole, revolves, Humboldt considers that "we enter the domain of mere conjecture."‡

Humboldt closes his work with a valuable chapter on the double stars, in which, however, there is nothing not generally known.

We have thus passed rapidly over this last volume of the Cosmos, noting such things as might be most interesting to the general reader, whom we must refer to the work itself for a rich treasure of details.

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* Cosmos, vol. iii., p. 125. † Cosmos, vol iii., p. 195.
‡ Cosmos, vol. iii., p. 197.

ART. IV.—ON EXTENDING THE COMMERCE OF THE SOUTH AND WEST BY SEA.*

NATIONAL OBSERVATORY,
Washington, Dec. 16, 1851.

To GLENDY BURKE, A. D. CROSSMAN, J. D. B. DE BOW, Esqs., &c. &c.,
Committee Southwestern Rail-Road Convention:

Gentlemen,—I am in receipt of your esteemed favor, informing me of the Rail-Road Convention to be held in New-Orleans on the first Monday in January next, and inviting me to be present, and "address the Convention upon the extension of Southern and Western commerce; the home and foreign trade as they are influenced by facilities of intercourse and communication by rail-roads or otherwise; or to prepare a report upon these subjects, to be read before the Convention, and placed among its documents."

My official engagements put it out of my power to attend; and I regret exceedingly that present calls upon my attention will not, at this late day, allow me to give as much time to the consideration of the vast subjects which are about to occupy the attention of the Convention as their importance deserves.

Had I the time requisite for the necessary reflection, arrangement and consideration, the very few thoughts that I have to offer might be presented in paragraphs as few.

Happy at all times to aid in a good work, and truly grateful to you for the privilege of doing good, if I be able, I make the following reply, in homage of my respect, and as a good-will offering for the success of those great enterprises which you have in hand.

Most of the rail-roads run across the ridges, and go from valley to valley. In one sense, our navigable water courses may be considered as inclined planes, and the river craft as gravity-cars, which, taking advantage of a physical principle, convey the produce to market at a cheap rate along the natural descents of the country. Hence the very striking feature in our internal improvement system: the rail-roads and navigable rivers cross at right angles. This is the rule. The Hudson River Rail-Road, and some of those which are either in contemplation or in process of actual construction in the South, are the exceptions which make that rule general.

Can the steam-car on the land successfully compete in the transportation of merchandise with the gravity-car on the water?

This is one of the questions which will no doubt command the deliberations of the Convention. Its members will be far better able to judge than I am, whether the condition of your part of the country be such that railways may run along parallel with your magnificent water courses, and live.

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* This able paper was ordered to be printed among the documents of the Convention. We are happy to give it to our readers in advance of their publication.—[*Editor.*

But in considering it, it should not be forgotten that this is an age of advancement and improvement. It was but a few years ago only that it was said, and the world believed, that the power of steam could not compete with the free winds of heaven in propelling vessels to and fro across the ocean. And I am not prepared to say that railways may not compete with the Mississippi in the transportation of merchandise, as well as of travelers.

Times have greatly changed: you all can recollect, gentlemen, when the price of cotton depended upon which way the wind blew. If easterly winds prevailed so as to prevent the arrival of the cotton fleet in Liverpool, up went the staple. Some swift-footed packet was dispatched over with the intelligence, and he who could outride the mail, and reach your markets first, made his fortune. But steam and the telegraph have done away with this. There is no more room for that sort of enterprise, as it used to be called. New-York and New-Orleans, with the forked tongue of the lightning, now talk daily together about the price of cotton and every thing else; and there is no more chance for the merchant to display his enterprise by getting control of private and peculiar sources of information. All information now as to the state of markets, is common.

Salem once had command of the tea-trade. Her merchants, ascertaining that the stocks on hand were small, and the sources of immediate supply scanty, would club together and buy up, for a speculation, all the tea in the country. But now, a cargo of tea arrives—the fact is known. The telegraph passes the word fore and aft through every state, and asks who wants?

If Salem merchants should demand one farthing more than those of New-York are willing to take, the telegraph would give the order to New-York. And so with every other article known to commerce.

Southern and Western merchants now, by reason of steam and lightning, can stay at home, send out orders, and get from France and England their supplies much sooner than a few years ago they could get them from Baltimore, New-York or Philadelphia, after having gone there to order them. The consequence is, that Southern and Western merchants do this; and there are now in that section of the country, houses engaged in importing from abroad.

The fact is, the producer and consumer are much nearer together than they used to be; consequently, the factor does not keep the large stocks of former times on hand. He draws from the sources of supply just in proportion as the channels of demand are glutted or free.

The chances of speculation are small, and profits are brought down to the smallest figure.

All these circumstances have impressed themselves upon the business of the country, imparted new features to it, and made necessary important changes in the mode and means of conducting it.

These changes, and the causes of them, have powerful bearings upon the subjects which the Convention is called to take into consideration.

They, and the operations of the warehousing system, have caused men of business to establish in St. Louis, Cincinnati, and Louisville, &c., foreign importing houses. The duties collected in these three cities for the current year, amount to nearly half a million, and the value of the foreign merchandise imported direct to, upward of a million and a half. These importers and the warehousing system are recovering back to the South a portion of the direct trade. The duties collected at Charleston this year are greater than they have ever been; and Charleston imports largely of Havana cigars for New-York.

It is true that the quantity of produce coming to New-Orleans in search of a market, has fallen off; and, consequently, the number of vessels arriving and departing, has decreased. This is what has alarmed, and justly alarmed, the people of New-Orleans. The cry is, "what's the matter? Here, there is decline, where there ought to be robust, vigorous health; depletion, where we ought to look for habits plethoric and full. What is it that has brought our city to this state of decline?" It appears to me that a satisfactory answer to this question is a necessary preliminary to the treatment of the case—to the application of remedies.

It is in the domestic trade, I apprehend, that the great falling off has taken place; or rather, I should say, it is in the export trade by sea, whether domestic or foreign, and not in the imports by sea, where the decline is; and if a decline in the quantity of produce going out of the mouth of the Mississippi has taken place, why, of course, a decline in the quantity delivered at New-Orleans from the upper country has preceded.

To satisfy myself as to the correctness of these views with regard to the import trade of the Mississippi River, I called upon the commissioner of customs, who has obligingly furnished me with the following tabular statement of the gross revenue collected at New-Orleans, &c., for the last five years:—

GOVERNMENT RECEIPTS FOR CUSTOMS.

	New-Orleans.	Cincinnati.	St. Louis.	Louisville.
1847	$1,621,357 08	$31,793 04	$52,751 69	$8,752 98
1848	1,714,880 43	56,874 79	60,618 38	8,648 81
1849	1,594,742 27	41,859 65	54,334 04	26,663 26
1850	1,924,698 41	133,838 76	122,914 91	59,901 00
1851	2,296,636 08	149,187 15	211,526 19	64,795 37

"The revenue collected at Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Louisville, and other ports similarly situated, was derived from importations of foreign merchandise at New-Orleans.

The importations of coffee (free) at New-Orleans, does not appear in this statement.

The returns since 1st July, 1851, compare favorably with last year up to the present date.

C. W. R.

Dec. 15th, 1851."

There are other places in the valley where duties are collected also; but this table shows a regular, steady, and business-like increase in the direct importations of foreign merchandise into the Mississippi valley by way of New-Orleans. The duties upon it have increased during the five years ending with the 30th June last, in round numbers, from $1,715,000 to $2,722,000, or at the average rate of nearly 12 per cent. per annum.

Now, the reason that the export sea-trade of New-Orleans has decreased, and its foreign trade increased, if traced back to first principles, will be found depending for an explanation upon steam and lightning, upon the improvements of navigation and ship-building, and upon the obstructions to navigation at the mouth of the Mississippi River.

In consequence of the first of these, a punctuality and a certainty have been given to commercial transactions, which, as before stated, have broken up almost entirely those transactions which were formerly known as "commercial speculations." Punctuality in filling orders and delivering goods where they are required, is now a vital principle to wholesome commerce. Dealers and factors are brought down to the smallest margin for commissions and profits. Merchants will tell you that profits now consist in parings made by close cutting: a little here, and a little there. Therefore, to save the handling of the produce of the Mississippi valley, once on its way to market, is profits.

Hence, all that produce which used to be shipped from New-Orleans to New-York, and then re-shipped thence for European markets, and all that foreign merchandise which used to be imported into New-York, and sent thence to New-Orleans, is beginning to go and come direct to New-Orleans, in order to save the transhipment. Many of the agencies that used to be employed between the producer and consumer, have been stricken down by the lightning; and the tendency of steam and the telegraph is to bring the producer and consumer more and more into direct intercourse.

In evidence of this, we may point to the importing houses that are springing up in the cities of the valley. In St. Louis, for example: there the wholesale merchants do not, as formerly, buy of the Eastern importer, and of course pay him his fees, commissions and profits; but they are beginning now to go direct to the foreign producer, as the eastern importer does, and order direct; thus saving the expenses of an agency, or the part of one at least.

The enterprise of Illinois has created another mouth to the Mississippi, and placed it in Lake Michigan. Much of the produce which formerly touched at New-Orleans on its way to market, now goes through that canal; and for certain articles, its influence is felt even on the plantations in the state of Louisiana; for some articles even from there, are turning about and flowing up stream: sugar is one, molasses another.

Before this canal was opened, the sugar of Louisiana, in order to reach the consumer in the lake country, had to go down to New-Orleans, then round by sea to New-York, then up to the lakes, and so across by water, boxing the compass to get to Chicago. Now that canal is beginning to supply that whole region of country with sugar and molasses, which it attracts up the Mississippi.

This lessens the receipts of freight at New-Orleans; but it benefits both producer and consumer; and it is not, I apprehend, any part of the objects of the Convention to interfere with a business so legitimate and proper as this is, and which all the railways in the world can no more bring back than they can stop up that canal. It is the object of the Convention to assist the sugar and the molasses to get to Chicago by railway, if sugar and molasses shall prefer that, to water carriage.

We buy *Virginia* hams here in Washington now that are cured in Terre Haute, on the Wabash. By the old and natural roads to market that could not be; the route of the ham would have been down to New-Orleans, thence by ship to New-York, and thence back by a packet into the Capes of Virginia, and so up the Potomac to Washington—a two or three months' voyage, during which, in consequence of the climates through which it must have passed, and the stowage it must encounter, it probably would have *come to life* again. At any rate, it would have been *alive* by the time it reached this place.

Now, in consequence of these rail-roads, which have been tapping the Mississippi valley, the "*Westphalias*" of Terre Haute can reach here in a week by paying ¼ cent a lb. They come up the Ohio, instead of going down; and across by rail-road, instead of around by water.

The commercial history of this ham is that of much produce in the valley of the upper Mississippi. Here, therefore, in these tapping railways, is to be found another of the silent causes which have lessened the deliveries of produce at New-Orleans.

To add to the deleterious effects upon New-Orleans of this tapping of the Mississippi River at the other end of its valley, and on the eastern side, are the bars at the Balize, and the influence which the depth of water there exercises—the baneful influence which the bar there exercises upon the models and the sailing qualities, and in fact, upon the whole economy of the ships that are built for the New-Orleans trade. And it is bad for the owners to be compelled to build ships that will not answer equally well for all trades. The best carriers, therefore, cannot come to New-Orleans. If they could, New-Orleans would soon find her merchants shipping the produce that lines the levee direct to its foreign port of destination. As it is, the ingenuity of ship-builders has contrived models for cotton ships.

These are immense carriers, and can take cotton to England at rates which a few years ago would have been considered ruinous to owners.

These vessels being once loaded and over the bar into blue water, will take cotton to Liverpool nearly as cheap as they will to New-York or Boston. The voyage is short, and perhaps the chances for a return cargo are better in Liverpool; therefore, they go direct.

In these facts and circumstances, and in this view of them, we can see the operation of causes which tend to increase the foreign export trade on one hand, and to decrease it on the other. These cotton ships are not good provision and assorted-cargo carriers. The clippers are for that. The new models beat steam. One of them (the Flying Cloud) has been known to sail 430 statute miles in one day, and upwards of 1100 miles in three consecutive days. These ships cannot come to New-Orleans. The bar will not admit them; and one of them can go to California and return while a "cotton droger" is getting around Cape Horn.

Besides, the winds are such, that a vessel, bound from New-Orleans to Brazil or California, has to go out of the gulf into the Gulf Stream, and then steer northwardly, till she reaches the parallel of 35° or 40°, so that it is not greatly out of her way to touch at New-York. Hence, most of the trade with California in produce of the Mississippi valley is carried on by the way of New-York, on account of the bar at the mouth of the Mississippi.

In all these circumstances are to be found lamps for our feet, and lights for our eyes, as we attempt to devise the ways by which enterprise and energy may restore to New-Orleans all the advantages which their absence from her high places has suffered to be taken away from her, or to be withheld, because never enjoyed.

The objects of the Convention, as set forth in the committee's circular of November 4th, 1851, "are, as far as possible, to bring about a concentration and unity of effort in all these states, in the extension of their rail-road systems, and in bringing into more active connection their population and their industry."

But it seems to be the wish of the committee that I should confine my attention to "the extension of southern and western commerce, the home and foreign trade, &c." Therefore, being invited out to sea, I shall let the rail-roads, which it is the special object of the Convention to encourage, alone. I take my departure from the premises above stated, and treat of extending the commerce of the Mississippi valley, &c., by sea.

The apparent decline in the business of New-Orleans is, as I have already intimated, due to the effects of the telegraph and rail-road, and to the improvements in steam, ship-building, and navigation. This is the root of the matter. What, then, are the steps which the South and West ought to take—what are the measures which they ought to adopt, in order to insure to them that degree of commercial wealth and prosperity, which their resources and their geographical position entitle them to expect?

The answer to this question lies under several heads, and the principal of them are these:

1st—A liberal policy on the part of New-Orleans, touching fees of various kinds, to which the produce that comes there shall be subjected.

2d—Embankments, to confine the Mississippi River in its channel.

3d—To deepen the water on one of the bars in the passes of the river.

4th—The establishment of lines of sea-steamers.

5th—Attention to the mineral resources of our region of country, and a free use of its manufacturing facilities.

6th—The opening of commercial highways across the Isthmus.

7th—The establishment, in the Mississippi valley, of a navy-yard, depot, and work-shops, which in war shall have strength, capacity, and resources enough to give us command of the Gulf of Mexico, and control of the commerce passing through it.

8th—The free navigation of the Amazon River, and the building up there of those business relations and friendly ties, which hold nations together in the bonds of peace and friendship.

These are the measures—the means are simple: they consist in a firm reliance upon our own abilities, with a determination to perform our part in the matter, and to require the government to do its part as well.

Such are the questions which I propose to consider, except in so far as the proposed rail-roads may be involved in the case. That, as already remarked, I leave to wiser heads.

If the people of the South and West will be but true to themselves—if they will put their shoulders to the wheel, and, as one man, appear, in the persons of their representatives here, in the halls of Congress, and insist upon fair, even-handed justice in the appropriations for public works, that course of legislation will follow, which long ago ought to have been adopted with regard to the Mississippi River, and kindred subjects.

I do not present these measures, or any of them, as substitutes or rivals to the proposed system of railways; nor do I hold them up as measures which will, ought, or should divert attention from the railways. There will be ability enough in the Convention to treat all of these measures, and to present each one to the public in its true bearings upon the common weal; and there is energy with enterprise enough in that region to carry them all on together.

II. The drowned lands in the Mississippi valley have been ceded to the states in which they lie, upon condition that those states, in reclaiming them, will confine the river within its banks.

The reclamation of these lands would improve the climate of a vast region of country, and make it much more salubrious: it would add vastly to the wealth of those states by giving value to the lands, and greatly increase their commercial resources by bringing immense regions of these vacant lands under cultivation; and it would also vastly improve the navigation of the river.

An object of so much importance to the health and prosperity of so many people, in so many states, is certainly worth looking after; and the work, when done, should be done in the most thorough and effective manner.

Therefore let us pray Congress for the appointment of an engineer who shall plan the work; and for the enactment of a statute, requiring the states to have the work done according to that plan.

This work is to last for all time. Suppose, therefore, merely for the sake of illustration, that one of the states above Louisiana should be unfortunate in the adoption of a plan; that after having let the work, accepted it, and parted with the lands, experience should prove the plan to be bad or the work to be useless. Louisiana then is overflowed in spite of herself; and her works, which we will suppose were really sufficient, are thus in danger of being rendered of no avail.

The prosperity of the valley is to be greatly affected by this work of embankment, drainage, and reclamation; and, therefore, the best talents that the country affords should be employed to direct it.

III. More than fourteen feet water cannot now be counted upon in crossing any of the bars at the Balize. Vessels drawing sixteen feet are sometimes dragged over them through the mud.

As for the ability of New-Orleans, or the people who send their produce there on its way to market, to avail themselves of the improvement in ship-building, as long as the passes of the river are obstructed by bars, it is out of the question. The sailing qualities of ships are according to their models; their models are regulated by their draught; and their draught is controlled by the depth of water on the bar. Therefore, the people of the great valley of the West, the men whose labors and whose enterprise have put the heart of the country where it is, and who supply all those great staples out of which the business of commerce raises revenue for the government—therefore, I say, those people must be doomed to second and third rate ships to do business for them upon the great waters, because that government will not do its duty. Had the people of the Mississippi valley been true to themselves, no representative of theirs would have ever been found recording his vote more than once against an appropriation for keeping the mouth of that river free and open for ships of the largest class.

A year or two ago, the Secretary of the Navy was kind enough to yield to my solicitations, and to direct a series of observations to be conducted upon the habits of the Mississippi River, at Memphis. This series commenced 1st March, 1850, and was continued daily for a year, by Robert A. Marr, Passed Mid. U.S. Navy; a most intelligent officer, and a patient and indefatigable observer.

His attention was directed, among other things, to the volume of water, as well as the quantity of sediment, borne down the river by Memphis.

His observations were most carefully made. According to them, and upon the supposition that the year gave a fair average, there go by Memphis daily, 471,550 cubic yards of sand and mud, or silt, as it is called.

Because the river runs faster at Memphis than it does at and below New-Orleans, and because, as the current slackens, the silt is precipitated, we are, I presume, correct in the inference, that the waters of the Mississippi River are more heavily laden with silt as they pass Memphis, than they are when they reach the Balize.

Now we know very well, and we derive the knowledge from many years of observation, that the Mississippi River does not raise its bottom, below New-Orleans, at the rate of more than a few inches in a year, if at the rate of an inch.

To cross the bar at either of the passes, a vessel has only to sail a few hundred yards. Suppose the bar were to rise up at the rate of one or two feet, instead of a few inches in the year; the channel-way across the bar for ships need not be more than 300 or 400 feet wide; and how much dredging would it take to excavate annually a layer of mud one or two feet deep, from a channel-way a quarter of a mile long, by 300 or 400 feet wide?

This is the matter about which the government has, for the last twenty years, been having examinations made. Examinations will never satisfy. Let us make the experiment.*

I have no doubt whatever as to the practicability of deepening one or more of the bars at the mouth of the Mississippi, and by dredging, of keeping any required depth of water there. A gale might now and then interfere with it. But it is a case in which experiment, and experiment alone, can properly decide. It is worth the trial. I hope, therefore, that the delegates to the Convention, and the people whom they represent, will take the matter in hand, and not rest till Congress causes the experiment of deepening one of the bars at the mouth of the Mississippi to be made. This is no New-Orleans question: it is not confined to the valley, nor to the people of the South and West. It is a great national concern. The people of Missouri, Iowa, and Tennessee, of Maine, Massachussetts, and Texas, are as much interested in this matter as are those of Louisiana.

IV. Steamships are the railways of the sea.

Notwithstanding there be fine navigable streams and good turnpike roads leading into a city, it is found, by ample experience, that a few rail-roads, well placed and brought into the same city, will vastly increase its business, and, hence, its prosperity.

What is singular about these railways is, that they do not interfere with the turnpikes nor the river trade. They create a business of their own.

So it is with lines of steamships. They do not interfere with the coasters and the sailing packets, which answer to the turnpike and river craft of the interior. But they also create a business of their own. Look what the European steamers have done for New-York and Boston. So far from interfering with the business under canvass, from those cities, they have stimulated it, and made it more active. Ever since steamers began to ply between New-York and Liverpool, the New-York packet ships have been increasing both in number and size. And it is as idle for us of the South and West to repose upon the great commercial advantages which nature has vouchsafed to New-Orleans, or to that region of country, by reason of her own geographical position, and the geographical position of the Gulf of Mexico—it is as idle, I say, for the people to rest quiet, and expect the proper lines of steamers to come to them, as it has been for them to rest quiet upon the advantages which the Mississippi River gave them, while all around them was enterprise and activity. Other cities and sections tapped the Mississippi valley, and sent rail-roads there for their own benefit and advantage. They may also, from the same motives, send their steamships to ply about New-Orleans. The people of New-Orleans have waked up to the reality of their position in one of those respects. The watchful are never caught asleep twice; and it is time they were beginning to be up and doing in the other.

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* See an article upon this subject, in the September Number of the "Western Review," published at St. Louis.

VI. As soon as there is a commercial thoroughfare across the Isthmus, which will unload, handle, and transport the breadstuffs with the other heavy produce of the Mississippi valley, across the Isthmus, and put it on board ships in the Pacific for less than it costs to get it as far as Cape Horn, on the way, that moment is the Gulf of Mexico raised to the summit level of this world's commerce.

All nations will then be down hill from the Gulf; and the people who inhabit the great valley of the West, and who pass its produce down through the Mississippi River into the Gulf, and deliver it there to the winds of heaven, or the currents of the sea, may then take their choice, and go with it by down-stream or fair-wind navigation, to any market place upon the sea-shore in the wide world.

Then, New-Orleans, instead of New-York, should glut the markets of California and Peru with breadstuffs, cucuyos and merchandise.

Then, the valley of the West, instead of the coal mines of England and the mines of Pennsylvania, should supply the vast demands which the Pacific Ocean has, and the far greater which it will have, for coals. It will give New-Orleans the command of a better coffee market than any she now has; and she can then send coffee, along with Louisiana sugar, up to that other mouth of the Mississippi, which Illinois enterprise has discovered in Lake Michigan.

Therefore, let the people of the South and West take time by the forelock, and wake up Tennessee and Kentucky, and other parts, to their duty, in that great manufacturing and mining region which nature has fitted them to be.

The people of South America and California, and the isles of the Pacific, will depend on them for merchandise; for the ports and outlets to market of the western people; and Southern states will then be the half-way house on the great market-ways. England and Europe, to reach the "grand ocean," as the French navigators style the Pacific, will have to pass by our very doors as they go, and come within call as they return.

A magnificent future is that which commerce, by the laws of trade, and the decrees of nature, holds in store for the people of the South and West. If we will only do our part, the prize is won, and the wealth and the power are ours also.

VII. Should there ever be, and doubtless there will be, several such highways across the Isthmus; and should war ever again occur among maritime nations, is it to be supposed that the belligerents, be they who they may, will look on and see us quietly enjoying all the advantages of these thoroughfares, and becoming thereby a head and shoulders taller than all the nations in the world? No, never.

Moreover, we are bound by that golden cord which never has, and —as far as it depends upon the people from my part of the country, whom I now address—which never can be tarnished or weakened—by the faith of this great nation, are we bound to maintain the neutrality of those highways.

That we may do this—that we may be true to ourselves, and secure in the possession of that great edifice of commerce, of wealth, grandeur and power, the keystone of which you have assembled to put in, the naval supremacy and command of the Gulf of Mexico, a *mare clausum*, and an American sea, is a *sine qua non*. It will never do to let Great Britain, or any other power, command that sheet of water with her ships of war.

To whom shall its defences be entrusted, but to us of the South and West, who have so much at stake there? It is well known that we will fight hard for our cotton bags.

Therefore, fortify the Tortugas, and build up the navy-yard at Memphis. The South and the West have been thimble-rigged out of that navy-yard. The law made it a naval depot, or dock-yard. It has been converted into a rope-walk, and thereby it has become a by-word and a reproach, if not an eyesore to its friends.

I repeat here what I have recently had occasion officially to upon the same subject:

"The enterprise of American citizens is about to open one or more commercial highways across the Isthmus. The access to them lies through American waters. They will be the channels of communication between the distant shores of the nation—its great highways from one part of the Union to the other.

"The faith of the nation has been pledged, touching the neutrality of some of these communications. The country will expect its navy to keep them open in war, and to preserve unsullied the national faith.

"The way to these thoroughfares, and the road to market from the Mississippi valley, run side by side through the Gulf of Mexico.

"No system of measures for providing for the common defence can be considered either complete or effective, unless it secure the command to us of this *mare clausum*. Its commercial importance, already great, will, in a few years more, be paramount.

"Already the natural outlet for millions, it is destined to surpass all other arms of the sea for its commerce, its wealth, and its national importance.

"The currents and winds at sea are such as to unite, in the Florida Pass, the commercial mouth of the Amazon with that of the Mississippi.

"The market-way across the seas, from the valley of the Amazon, the Orinoko, the Magdalena, the Atrato, the Coatzacoalcos, the Rio Grande, and the Mississippi, passes through or upon the borders of this sea.

"The works are projected which will turn in that direction the commerce of the East; and all the ships engaged in it, whether from Europe or America, will sail through the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea, passing by our doors both coming and going.

"Through the Gulf of Mexico and Caribbean Sea, the country requires safe conduct in war for its mails, its citizens, and their merchandise, as they pass to and fro from one part of the Union to the other.

"The natural outlet to a system of river basins, that include within their broad dimensions 70 degrees of latitude—the most fertile lands in either hemisphere, and an area of them exceeding in extent the whole continent of Europe—this arm of the ocean that is spread out before our southern doors, occupies that position upon which the business of commerce is to reach its summit level.

"Here is to be the scene of contest between maritime nations in war. Here are the gateways of the ocean; and the power will hold the keys thereof, that has the naval supremacy in the Gulf of Mexico.

"The great sea-fights of this country are probably to take place here."

In the valley of the Mississippi nature has placed the means, and our free institutions the men, for defending that gulf and the interests connected therewith. Unless we avail ourselves of these resources, it will be difficult and expensive to command it in war.

Therefore, in providing a system of national defences for our interests in that quarter, one of the first steps is to complete the navy-yard at Memphis, and make of it an establishment worthy of its objects, and capable of giving force and effect, in time of war, to the immense naval resources, power and strength of the great valley of the West.

To Memphis, Pensacola, and the fortifications at Key West and Tortugas, ought to be mainly entrusted the defences of the Gulf of Mexico.

It has been said, "It is too expensive to build a navy-yard at Memphis: piles will have to be driven at the edge of the river;" yet it is not too expensive to drive them in the bottom of the sea at New-York, and build there a dock, which the Secretary of the Navy, in his last annual report, tells the country has cost $2,146,255.

I do not comprehend the logic which makes it too expensive to provide for the common defences in the Gulf of Mexico, the most vital part in our whole system, when it has been by no means too expensive to provide defences for the Atlantic. Provide as effectually, or as ineffectually, we care not which, for the common defence of the Gulf as for that of the Atlantic. All we want is justice, even-handed, impartial justice.

According to the Report of the Secretary of War, just presented to Congress, on the subject of fortifications, the amount expended upon the army and navy, exclusive of dock yards, in providing for the common defence since 1816, has amounted to upwards of seventy-five millions of dollars. How much of this has been expended upon gulf defences, or for the benefit of the people whom I address? Precious little. We all know the Atlantic states have enjoyed a double benefit: 1st, of having the works in them; and secondly, of drawing the money for them from the South and West, and spending it in the North and East.

To me, gentlemen, it is immaterial whether a proper naval establishment at Memphis will cost one or twenty millions of dollars to found it. Let us have it, I say, if it be necessary. If the country want it, and if great interests of state demand it, shall a nation like this expose itself to injury and insult because it cannot afford to supply the necessary means of defence to any part of it? Let us have an establishment there worthy of its object, and of the people whose purposes it is to subserve. It should be the pride and the boast of the entire Mississippi valley. In times of peace it would stand you in the place of a great university for teaching the higher branches of many of the mechanic arts to your young men.

The workshops connected with such an establishment would be filled with apprentices whom the government pays while they are learning their trade.

These workshops would draw to your section of country many of the most skilful mechanics. They would stimulate the industrial pursuits of that region, and assist in the development of its mineral resources. These are some of the advantages which such establishments carry along with them in peace, and make their presence so greatly to be desired along the Atlantic borders.

You have assembled to plan foundations for your future commerce; to provide the means for defending that commerce, appears to me to be intimately and necessarily connected with the subject of your deliberations. Hence the reason for calling your attention to a suitable naval establishment at Memphis.

VIII. The free navigation of the Amazon is the greatest commercial boon that the people of the South and West—indeed, that the people of the United States can crave. That river-basin is but a continuation of the Mississippi valley. The Mississippi takes its rise near the parallel of 50° north latitude, where the climates are suited to the growth of barley, wheat, and the hardy cereal grains. The river runs south, crossing parallels of latitude, and changing with every mile its climate, and the character or quality of the great agricultural staples which are produced on its banks.

Having left behind it the regions for peltries, wheat and corn; for hemp and tobacco; for pulse, apples, whiskey, oil and cotton; and having crossed the pastoral lands for hogs, horses and cattle, it reaches, near the latitude of 30°, the northern verge of the sugar cane.

Thence expanding out into the gulf, with all these staples upon its bosom, to be exchanged for the produce of other climes and latitudes, it passes on to Key West and the Tortugas; and there, at that commercial gateway to the ocean, which opens out upon the Tropic of Cancer, it delivers up to the winds and the waves of the sea for the distant markets, the fruits of its teeming soil and multitudinous climes.

Then comes in the great valley of the Amazon: taking up the agricultural produce and staples which the Mississippi had just reached, and pushing the variety beyond the equator, it increases, and far down into the other hemisphere diversifies the wonderful assortment, until sugar and coffee, rice and indigo, drugs and spices, cocoa and cotton, cochineal and tobacco, india rubber, dye woods, peltries, flax and wool, gums, various ornamental woods, mines of silver, gold and precious stones, of new varieties, kinds and virtues, have been reached, and added to the list of countless treasures, boundless commercial capacities, and dazzling resources, of these two magnificent water-sheds.

Save and except tea, which is the only article of commerce that is gathered from the field, the forest or the mine, that is not to be found in one or the other of these two river basins, everything that is grown or cultivated upon the face of the earth is to be found in equal, if not in greater perfection and abundance, in one or the other of these valleys, than in any other part of the world.

One of these is in the rear of New-Orleans—the other, in its front. It is for this Convention to say whether these two rivers shall be united in the bonds of commerce or not.

The Amazon, with its tributaries, is said to afford an inland navigation, up and down, of not less than 70,000 miles. The country drained by that river, and the water-courses connected with it, is more than half as large as Europe, and it is thought to contain nearly as much arable land within it as is to be found on that continent. It has resources enough to maintain a population of hundreds of millions of souls.

The navigation on that river is at present such, that the people of the upper country can make but one trip in the year. They have there, in their delightful climate of an everlasting spring, the calm season and the trade-wind season. The trade-winds blow up the river. In the calm season, the natives, in their rude bungaloes, loaded with the produce of the upper country, drift down with the current. Arrived with their stuff at Para, they sell almost for dollars what they got for cents at the place of production.

Having completed the business of the season, they wait for the S. E. trade-winds to set in; with them they return, and complete the business and the trading for the year.

To afford the Convention an idea of the business carried on, by sea, with Para, I quote returns of exports for the year ending Dec. 31st, 1850, which Mr. Norris, the American Consul for that port, has had the kindness to furnish me:

EXPORTS FROM THE PORT OF PARA FOR THE YEAR ENDING DEC. 31, 1850.

	Spec	Sarsaparilla	Annatto	Tapioca	Cleaned Rice	Cocoa	Balsam Copaiva	Cotton	India Rubber	Isinglass
	Arrobas	Arrobas	Arrobas	Alqueires	Arrobas	Arrobas	Canada	Arrobas	Arrobas	Arrobas
To the United States ..		58	1638	3254	3990	28,479	1130	……	50,069	
Total Export……….	1633	4558	6655	7595	82,606	283,753	1837	3132	79,335	834

	Nuts	Rice in Husk	Tonka Beans	India Rubber Shoes	Sugar	Dry Hides	Green Hides	Grass Rope	Guaranna
	Alqueires	Alqueires	Arrobas	Pairs	Arrobas	No.	No.	Inches	Arrobas
To the United States.........	21,889		74	143,247		11,581	10,196		
Total Export.................	47,528	63,676	92	240,999	9551	26,463	12,670	5581	93

This is a growing business.

A friend who has crossed the Andes, and is now on his way home, down the Amazon, informs me that parts of the Puna country, of Peru and Bolivia, and in which the waters of the Amazon take their rise, are already over-populated; that portions of the Amazonian water-shed, over which he had passed, are "rich in flocks of sheep; and all that is wanted is a close market (which the free navigation of the Amazon would give) to induce the shepherds to raise millions." No other part of the world grows wool like this. It is peculiar.

He reports fine sugar and coffee plantations there, with cotton growing wild; also, there are cinnamon groves, and forests of the tree from which the Peruvian bark, which affords quinine and physic to the world, is taken; and being put on the back of these sheep and asses, is transported from the head navigable waters of the Amazon, 600 miles, among the clouds and snow-capped mountain-ranges, to the Pacific.

It now goes west, and when it arrives at the seaport town of Arica, it is worth, annually, half a million. With the right to send an American steamboat up the Amazon, all this stuff would come east and flow down that river.

With the free navigation of the Amazon, a steamer might load at St. Louis with the produce of those high latitudes, and deliver its cargo right at the foot of the Andes, where the Amazon leaps down from the mountain into the plains below. With a portage easy to overcome by the hand of improvement, she could then ascend the steppes of the Andes, travel several hundred miles farther up, and deliver her cargo within hail of Cuzco and the mines of Peru.

The free navigation of that river is included, I conceive, among the subjects, with regard to which the committee has invited me to express my views to the Convention; and I hope the Convention will deem it not unworthy of their careful consideration.

Considering the softness of its climates, the fertility of its soils, and the lavish hand with which nature stands ready to fill for the husbandman the horn of plenty there; and when man is thus surrounded, considering that his industrial energies are for the most part addressed to the tillage of the earth; and considering, moreover, the character of the people who inhabit that valley of the South, and the character of the people who inhabit this of the North; we are struck with the fact—and it is a physical fact—that the valley of the Amazon is but a commercial appendage of the Mississippi; and that it rests with us and the course of policy which we may pursue, whether this physical fact shall be converted into a practical one; and whether the South will suffer the geographical advantages of its position with regard to that region to go by default, as it has similar advantages in other cases.

Attention to this subject cannot be given too soon, or too earnestly.

Its importance is great. Legions of benefits and advantages are to flow from it; many of them are palpable and obvious; some are dim in the mists of the future; but all of them are certain. In short, as a commercial matter, the free navigation of the Amazon is the question of the age. As time and use shall develop its bearings, our children will weigh the effects upon the prosperity of the country, of the free navigation of the Amazon with the acquisition of Louisiana. They will place them in the balance together to contrast and compare them; and on considering the effects of each, they will dispute and wrangle as to which of the two has proved the greater blessing to their country.

I inclose, herewith, a pamphlet, entitled "Commercial Conventions —Direct Trade, &c.," in which the subject of steam communications with the *mouth* of the Amazon, but no further, is treated.*

The question which I propose for the especial consideration of the Convention, relates to the free navigation of the Amazon itself— to the right of the people of the United States to send their steamboats to that river, to ply up and down it, as they do upon the waters of their own Mississippi, and to buy, sell, and get gain on the banks thereof.

Commerce, so far as climate and soil are concerned in ministering to its wants and in imparting health and activity to its influences, is based upon an exchange of the produce of one latitude for the produce of another, and for this simple reason: that the planter who grows sugar in Louisiana, does not wish to exchange it for Brazil or any other sugar. He may exchange it for Brazil coffee, or for Brazil anything else that is *not* sugar.

For this reason, Europe, for hundreds of years past, has been struggling for the commerce "of the East;" and for no other reason, than that latitudes and climates, and consequently wants and produce, that are not to be found or satisfied in Europe, abound in "the East."

In a commercial sense, the valleys that are drained by the "father of waters," and the "king of rivers," as the Amazon is called, are complements of each other. What one lacks, the other supplies. Together, they furnish all those products and staples which complete the list of articles in the circle of commerce.

The right of our people to go with their Mississippi steamers into the Amazon, will, when exercised, draw emigrants to that valley, who, being there, will become our customers; and as soon as the proper impulse is given to their commerce and their industrial pursuits, we shall find there at our doors, instead of away on the other side of the world, all the productions of "the East." In short, "the East," in one sense, will be brought within eight or ten days' sail of New-Orleans, instead of being removed to the distance of four or five months off, as it now is.

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* This paper was published in our February number.—ED.

Several nations, as Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and Brazil, are the owners of the Amazon and its navigable tributaries.

Brazil is the principal owner. All the lower Amazon is hers; and she has given none of the upper countries as yet the right of way through it to and from the sea.

The question then is, do the people who are represented in this Convention set any value upon the right to steam and trade up and down the navigable streams of that magnificent water-shed? At present the country is for the most part a wilderness of howling monkeys and noisy parrots; its boundaries are fringed with settlements; but only here and there, when you leave the outskirts of the valley and begin to penetrate into the interior, are the traces of civilized man to be found.

To obtain this right is the work of diplomacy. But the states and people who have been invited to this Convention, may, by their action, influence that diplomacy.

Brazil may be invited to give the free navigation of this river away as a boon to civilization, and make it common to the world. But it is not to be supposed that Brazil will part with such a jewel without a consideration.

Shall it be bought with a sum of money? Or shall the free navigation of the Mississippi be offered to Brazil in exchange for the free navigation of the Amazon?

By our own laws, an English vessel, or the vessel of any other nation at peace with us, is as free to sail up the Mississippi River, land and take in a cargo at St. Louis, and to come down again, as she is to go up the Chesapeake Bay to Baltimore, or the Delaware to Philadelphia.

But do such foreign vessels go up to St. Louis? No. Why? Because, when they arrive at New-Orleans with their cargoes of foreign merchandise, which they have brought across the seas, they find it cheaper to send it up in one of our river-boats, than to take it up themselves; and, therefore, though foreign vessels, by our own laws, may go up and come down, yet the free navigation of the Mississippi, to this extent, has proved of no practical value to any of them. Would they go up farther if they could?

Still the time was, when the free navigation of the Mississippi River was a question of deep and absorbing political interest to us; and we may infer, therefore, that the diplomatist of the country would act, when the proper time comes, with more confidence touching the offer to Brazil of the free navigation of the Mississippi for that of the Amazon, after having learned the opinion and wishes upon the subject, of the people of the Mississippi valley.

Admitted upon the Amazon with their boats, our people would desire to participate there in what is called with us "the river trade;" for considering that the habits of the Amazonians are not at all aquatic, it is not by any means probable, that Brazilian enterprise would be sufficient to supply the boats and boatmen requisite for this river trade. She cannot do it now.

But are we prepared to let Brazilian capital, and Brazilian subjects, compete with our own people for the business—the river trade—of our own Mississippi waters? We should ask nothing of Brazil which we are not willing to render to Brazil. Are we prepared, therefore, to offer to admit Brazilian subjects to an equal participation with our own citizens, of the trade of the Mississippi River, on condition that she will admit our citizens to an equal participation with her own subjects in the river-trade of the Amazon and its tributaries?

That is the question as to which I desire to draw an expression of opinion from the Convention, because I believe that that opinion, being regarded as the opinion of the people of the Mississippi valley, would have a bearing upon the subject, as one of a practical nature, and of paramount importance.

Suppose that the United States should declare, that the citizens and subjects of all nations should have the same rights to build and launch boats on the Mississippi River that our people have; that the right to take freight from one landing or town to another, and to trade up and down the river, should be as perfect and as complete to the foreigner of whatever nation, as it is to the American citizen—what would be the effect?

Such a surrendering of the "coasting trade," as the river-trade may be properly called, might possibly induce a few foreigners to send over their capital and build boats. But these boats, to compete with our own boats, would have to be manned by our own watermen—officered by our own people. And such a law, therefore, might interfere with American owners.

But, instead of such a privilege being offered to *all* nations, suppose it were offered only to Brazil, in exchange for like privileges to our own citizens upon her rivers—what would be the result then?

Why, this: Brazil has not even the energy among her own subjects to put boats upon her own rivers, where they have the monopoly of trade and navigation; much less would her subjects have the enterprise to come here and put boats upon the Mississippi, to run in competition with our own. On the other hand, we, who have the enterprise, the energy, the skill in boat-building, would, with the knowledge, over all the world, which we have in steamboat river-navigation, go to the Amazon, and enjoy there something like a practical monopoly. For it is not to be supposed that, if we offer to divide our Mississippi River trade with her subjects, on condition that she will make a like division to us of her Amazonian trade—it is not, such being the conditions, to be supposed, I say, that any other nation would on either side be admitted into the arrangement.

There is but one Mississippi River, and but one Amazon, in the world; and there is no equivalent for the free navigation of the one, but the free navigation of the other. Therefore, no nation on the earth can buy and sell a commercial jewel of such value.

The question, thus narrowed down, is simply this:—In enlarging and extending the foundations of the commercial system, which is to make of the United States the greatest nation the world ever saw, and of the Mississippi valley the heart and centre of it,—are you willing to give the free navigation of this river for that of the Amazon?

The subject of the free navigation of the Amazon and its tributaries, is a vast one. I have barely touched it. Nor is it necessary for me to attempt a discussion of it: do it justice, I could not. To go into the merits of it, either with the committee, or before the Convention in whose behalf I have been drawn into the subject, I have not the time; and if the time, not the abilities. I merely wished to put the question, and to subscribe myself, gentlemen of the committee, a man of the Southwest, and one who, having the interests of his country greatly at heart, is, with his feeble power, at the service of the committee and of the Convention in all things for good. Respectfully, &c.,

M. F. Maury, Lt. U. S. Navy.

Committee S. W. R. R. Convention,
New Orleans.

ART. V.—THE GULF TRADE.

I have to acknowledge the receipt of your letter inviting me to "address the South-western Rail-road Convention" to be held in your city on the first Monday of January next, "or to prepare a report to be read before the Convention, and placed among its documents."

I regret that protracted absence at the capital of this state, has delayed the reception of your letter until this time, and thus rendered it impracticable to comply with either of your requests.

I cannot, however, omit the occasion to express, although in a hurried manner, the great satisfaction I experience in witnessing the efforts now being made to rouse our section of the confederacy from that fatal indifference to works of public improvement which has too long characterized it.

It is, however, a very great mistake, although not an uncommon one, to suppose that our people lack either industry or energy. Witness the numerous states of our portion of the Union, whose native forests, in an almost incredibly brief period, have been forced to yield to the civilization of the husbandman, and whose borders yet ring with the unceasing echo of the axe.

It is in this keen pursuit of individual gain, (heretofore so large,) that our people have lost sight of the advantages to be derived from those great works of intercommunication, which, from their diffusion of benefits, are termed "public improvements."

The assemblage of the "South-western Convention" must be regarded as an important step in this spirit of progression; and I sincerely trust will prove the harbinger of that day, whose fullness will bestow wealth, power, and true independence, upon our most highly-favored portion of the confederacy.

Permit me, gentlemen, to say a few words in an informal manner, as to our cities, New-Orleans and Mobile; trusting that the interests they represent are so extended, that a reference to these localities will not be considered invidious.

New-Orleans, your own great city, has been slow to move; and is perhaps justly responsible for much of that indifference to "public improvements," the existence of which is now so sorely felt. There she sits, contentedly enthroned upon the great Delta of the Mississippi, an appropriate representative of Fortune, while the god of rivers pours into her lap the treasures of his immense dominions.

Mobile, on the other hand, not so bountifully endowed, and possessing much more limited resources, was naturally the first to feel the effects of that successful rivalry, which limited them still more, and was consequently the first to institute a great chain of improvement, connecting with the gulf the waters of the northern lakes; thus demonstrating that there is an awakened energy in our own region, which will at least make a *determined effort* in the right direction.

It gives me sincere pleasure, while upon this subject, to say, what I have no doubt the Convention will be pleased to learn, that recent events, not necessary here to be detailed, have removed the last doubt as to the completion of that great work in which our citizens have taken so active a part; and that in perhaps *less than a twelvemonth, the entire road from Mobile to Lake Michigan will be placed under contract.*

As between these cities, this should excite no jealousy; the kindly feeling which has characterized their past intercourse, should be still further strengthened by this great work, with which *both* should be identified. In the struggle for commercial ascendency, which is daily becoming more and more severe, New-Orleans and Mobile stand together against the mighty efforts of the Atlantic ports to seize upon the commerce which geographically belong to the gulf cities.

It is in this point of view that I regard this great road, traversing so many degrees of latitude, and embracing such a variety of products, *as the first great counter-move* in favor of the gulf, securing to her cities an immense traffic, which would otherwise find an outlet upon the Atlantic. Its magnitude can only be estimated by considering what in a few years must be the population of the valley of the Mississippi. Who that has the slightest appreciation of the future, will deny that the gulf, the natural outlet of so much of its vast productions, will rear upon its borders two cities of the first magnitude? Their proximity, surely, constitutes no valid objection. It is much less than that of New-York and Philadelphia; and we are living witnesses to the fact that they advance to greatness with giant strides, and with equal step.

If, therefore, we prove worthy of our destiny, why, let me ask, may not New-York and Philadelphia be repeated on the margin of the Gulf of Mexico?

The great design which took its origin with your citizens, and which in my humble judgment challenges in the *highest degree* their attention, the connection with the Pacific by the Isthmus of Tehuantepec, will, if successfully pursued, reflect immortal honor upon its projectors, and confer incalculable advantages not only upon your own city, but upon the whole region of country with which she is connected. A work so full of promise, and commenced under such auspices, should not be permitted to stop. Neither cold indifference, nor secret hostility, proceeding from quarters however powerful, should be allowed to obtrude themselves between your rights and the protection of the government, which is bound to guaranty them. Believing, therefore, you will receive that governmental support to which you are justly entitled, I cannot doubt that the day is near at hand when the Gulf and the Pacific will be thus united, and Tehuantepec become a great highway for the nations.

There is another subject, kindred to this, and to which I would briefly, through you, call the attention of the Convention: it is the construction of a ship canal across the state of Florida, from Cedar Keys to the St. Johns, or at any point more suitable.

The practicability of this work, I assert, upon the authority of some of the most eminent engineers in this country—and its utility, is so self-evident, and rests upon so broad a basis, that I would not be justified in consuming time for the purpose of sustaining it.

We all know that the chief inducement now held out, to deprive the gulf market of its commerce, is the delay, expense, and danger, of navigating the Cape of Florida—the truth of all which is beyond doubt or contradiction. The loss which is incurred by the dangers of this navigation would, in a few years, compensate the cost of such a work.

Every motive, therefore, which could address itself to those who are interested in the navigation of the gulf, comes in the most imposing form to urge this subject upon the public mind.

It is wonderful that, suffering under the burthens so long imposed upon our commerce by these difficulties, so interesting a question as this should have slumbered until this day, without that scientific investigation which its vast importance merits.

This route would not only save the immense contribution now levied upon our commerce, but would also greatly modify the political aspect of the Cuba question, giving a transit for much of our own commerce over our own territory, and greatly strengthening our confederacy in its military defences.

Impressed by the great importance of this work, I took occasion to bring the subject before an internal improvement convention, held in this city in May last, and which adopted a resolution, expressive of the opinion favorable to its practicability and great value. Acting under the same impressions now, believing that it is a work which in every point of view is of the highest importance to the confederacy, and that it is within the powers of Congress to execute, I ask leave, through you, to present the following resolutions for the adoption of the Convention :

Resolved, That the interests of all the states bordering on the Gulf of Mexico, as well as of those states whose productions find an outlet therein, are deeply involved in the inquiry, whether the expense, delay and danger, which now burthen the commerce of the gulf in the navigation of the Cape of Florida, may not be avoided by a ship canal across that state.

Resolved, That the representatives of the states interested, now assembled at Washington, be requested to urge this question upon Congress at its present session; and if the proper departments are not now ready to give the work such an approbation as to justify Congress, with the consent of the state of Florida, at once to undertake the work—then that these representatives be requested to take such action as will cause a full and accurate survey to be made, so that the necessary information may, at the earliest practicable time, be given to the government and the country.

Resolved, That copies of these resolutions be forwarded to the members of Congress, and that copies also be immediately forwarded to the state legislatures, now in session, requesting their aid in bringing this matter fully before the Congress of the United States.

Regretting that circumstances prevent any other return to your kind invitation than these hastily-penned remarks, allow me, gentlemen, to wish you the fullest success in the patriotic movement now being made by you.

With sentiments of great respect,
I remain your obedient servant,
P. PHILLIPS.

To Messrs. BURKE, DE BOW, &c.
Mobile, 31*st December*, 1851.

ART. VI.—INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS BY GOVERNMENT—PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD.

I HAVE received your letter, inviting me to attend the Rail-road Convention which is to meet in New-Orleans on the first Monday in January next. It will not be in my power to attend. Official duties oblige me at that time to be at my post at Washington.

But I send you three reports in reference to the trade of the lakes and western rivers, which may be of service to your deliberations.*

Allow me to draw your attention to a few of the facts of these reports.

The system of harbor and river improvements may be considered as having been commenced in 1806, and as having been continued without interruption, up to, and including the year 1845; and, by reference to the table, page 24, report No. 1, it will be perceived that the whole appropriations on these accounts are not more than about seventeen millions of dollars.

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* These reports were made by Col. Abert, of the dates December, 1846, January, 1848, May, 1850.

A second table, on the same page of the same report, exhibits the years through which this amount has been distributed. The first table on the same page names the states in which the expenditures were made; and previous pages of the same report name the particular work which was the object of expenditure. The facts of this report will remove all that class of objections to the system, which depend upon the supposition, that the system has been for the exclusive benefit of a few localities, and of that class of objections in which so much imagination has been indulged, in reference to the amount expended.

GOVERNMENT APPROPRIATIONS FOR INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

States and Territories.	Amount.	States and Territories.	Amount.
Maine	$276.574 72	Mississippi	$46,500 00
New-Hampshire	10,000 00	Louisiana	717,200 00
Massachusetts	526,148 22	Tennessee	11,920 00
Vermont	101,000 00	Kentucky and Tennessee	155,000 00
Rhode Island	32,000 00	Arkansas	486,065 00
Connecticut	160,407 26	Missouri and Arkansas	100,000 00
New-York	1,632,115 80	Missouri	75,000 00
New-Jersey	28,963 00	States through which the western rivers pass, (the Ohio, Mississippi, Missouri, and Arkansas)	1,698,000 00
Pennsylvania	207,981 23	Indiana	1,270,733 59
Pennsylvania and Delaware	38,413 00	Illinois	993,601 00
Delaware	2,038,356 00	Ohio	2,617,661 37
Maryland, Pennsylvania, and Virginia	1,901,227 81	Michigan	645,724 83
Maryland	55,000 00	Wisconsin Territory	167,500 00
Virginia	25,000 00	Iowa Territory	75,000 00
North Carolina	370,377 00		
Georgia	243,043 06		
Florida	287,712 72		
Alabama	204,997 60		17,199,223 21

AMOUNTS APPROPRIATED IN EACH YEAR.

Year.	Amount.	Year.	Amount.
1806	$48,400 00	1831	$926,311 84
1810	60,000 00	1832	1,225,008 43
1811	50,000 00	1833	1,159,451 82
1812	30,800 00	1834	1,641,621 52
1815	100,000 00	1835	1,352,243 61
1816	10,000 00	1836	1,837,520 31
1817	4,000 00	1837	1,768,218 63
1818	317,989 60	1838*	2,087,044 16
1823	32,920 00	1839	60,500 00
1824	175,000 00	1841	75,000 00
1825	176,712 00	1842	100,000 00
1826	284,253 00	1843	230,000 00
1827	398,541 45	1844	696,500 00
1828	1,020,120 56	1845	50,000 00
1829	608,560 25		
1830	672,506 03		17,199,223 21

BUREAU CORPS OF TOPOGRAPHICAL ENGINEERS,
December 26, 1846.

J. J. ABERT,
Col. Corps of Topographical Engineers.

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* The appropriation law of 1838 directed that but a portion (not exceeding one-half) of amounts appropriated should be expended in that year.

It will appear that these expenditures have been diffused over nearly every state; not to the same amount in each, because, as must be evident to every reflecting mind, it is not every state which has, within its limits, harbors or rivers which require improvement, or which admit of being improved. But every state must experience the benefit of improved harbors and rivers of an adjoining state.

Much misconception has arisen in reference to amounts which have been appropriated for these harbors and rivers. Allow me to call your attention to page 25 of the report, marked No. 2. It is there stated, that the whole amounts appropriated (from 1806 to 1845) are,

For lake harbors	$2,790,500
For the western rivers	2,758,800

By which it will be perceived, that the whole amount appropriated and expended on these two interesting and important parts of the system, does not exceed $5,549,300.

These facts are adapted to dissipate many erroneous impressions, and to correct many errors.

Now, if it be desirable to know how the balance of the seventeen millions over and above the amount for lake harbors and for western rivers has been expended, the information will be found in the report marked No. 1.

By referring to the facts of the report marked No. 3, it will be perceived that

The nett commerce of the lakes was, for 1848	$93,242,633
And for the western rivers, for the year 1849	256,233,820

As the "exports" of one place are presumed to be the "imports" of another, the "nett commerce" is taken to be one half of "exports and imports." These latter constituting what may be called the "gross commerce," which last would be double the amounts stated.

This idea is not rigidly correct. Without doubt, the "nett commerce" is more than half of the "gross commerce." But yet it was considered the safe rule to adopt. Reasoning upon such a subject, to obtain credit, should exhibit the desire of avoiding exaggeration, or of assuming conjecture as a basis of the reasoning.

The passenger trade on the lakes, (see page 5 of the report No. 3,) can be stated for the year 1849, at, passengers	356,000
And, supposing the passengers to have a direct relation to tonnage and amount of trade, the passenger trade on the western waters may be safely stated, for the same year, at, passengers	1,500,000

From these facts can be inferred sound reasons why so many rail-roads are well supported, and why so many are required, as, without this immense internal trade, and the consequent number of passengers, these rail-roads would be without support.

It is considered that the lake trade alone has made necessary the rail-road from Buffalo to Albany; the rail-road from Dunkirk to New-York; the rail-road from Albany to Boston, and the rail-road from Albany to New-York. The various branches to these great roads, derive their chief support from the same causes, the vast amount of internal trade and the passenger trade which it generates. The same reasoning and causes are applicable to the southern rail-roads. How few of these would exist, if local patronage were their sole support.

We are indebted to Europe for many of the most useful mechanic arts; but Europe is indebted to us for the great moral mechanics which best develop the energies and resources of a people, and which bring into profitable activity the industry and capacity of every member of the great body politic.

Referring effects to adequate and palpable causes, I believe it is to be demonstrated, that this rapid and immense development of internal trade, this better than the mines of California, diffusing employment, wealth and happiness throughout our vastly extended country, is owing chiefly to the very limited patronage which has, as yet, been extended by the general government to our Lake Harbor and Western River improvements. This patronage has populated those regions, and has thrown a vast amount of wild land into useful cultivation. Because it has furnished the means by which the products of the soil can find a market, exempt from consuming charges of transportation, and in return by increasing the means, has increased the wants of the cultivator and his ability to supply them.

The propriety of any particular rail-road project is to be decided by reference to this great trade, in the benefits of which it will participate; and there can hardly be a project of a road, which shall form a link in the connection between the western rivers, or the lake harbors and the Atlantic, which will not partake of these as well as of local benefits.

But it appears to me that this great chain will be incomplete, and its benefits be but partially enjoyed, unless the connection be formed between the Mississippi and the Pacific. Of the rail-road to insure this connection, I have written several letters, but probably the last is all that you would desire to read. I send a copy of this.

It appears to me that such a road, connecting with the Mississippi at some point so far south as to be exempt from interruption from ice, would make New-Orleans the great emporium for the Pacific trade.

The connection between the Mississippi end of the road and New-Orleans, as well as with other points on that river, would probably be best accomplished by steamboat. And by means of this river and the Ohio, there is no town on the shores of either which would not derive benefit from the road. Then by the lakes, by rail-roads, and by canals, links already exist to complete the connection inland with the Atlantic.

The subject is a vast one. It fills the imagination; and unless I am much mistaken, it would also fill the pockets of our people.

The various Isthmus routes with the Pacific have occupied much attention. Allow me to send an interesting printed letter on this subject, from Brevet Colonel Hughes, of the Corps.*

But these several routes have always appeared to me open to serious objections.

1st. From the time they require.

2d. From interruptions in the continuity of the voyage, by frequent changes from land to sea, and the consequent different modes of transportation.

3d. They would of necessity become prolific sources of maritime wars, and of consequent interruptions in the trade.

4th. They are out of our jurisdiction and control.

5th. The money required in the construction of parts would be for the benefit of a foreign people and of foreign soil.

6th. In all suspensions of the trade from war or other durable cause, the inland parts would necessarily become dilapidated or destroyed; and when these causes of interruption had subsided, there is no telling how much time and how much money would be required to restore the way to use, and to bring commerce back again to these channels, which the interruption had forced to be changed.

7th. Expenses on these routes must necessarily be great.

8th. The armed fleets which the protection of the commerce on these routes would require, would involve most serious national expenses. The nation could better afford to give half the cost of a continuous rail-road from the Mississippi.

A war of one year, with its cost, and consequent losses of all kinds—a war resulting from circumstances necessarily attending any one of these Isthmus routes, would probably amount to more than the making of the entire road from the Mississippi.

These Isthmus routes are good temporary expedients; but the durable and really valuable route is, in my opinion, to be found only in a continuous rail-road route from the Mississippi to the Pacific within our own jurisdiction.

Respectfully, sir, your obedient servant,

J. J. ABERT,
Col. Corps Top. Engineers.

GLENDY BURKE, Esq.,
Chairman, &c., &c., New-Orleans.

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* Annexed.

SOUTHERN RAIL-ROAD TO THE PACIFIC.

BUREAU OF TOPOG. ENG., WASHINGTON, Jan. 25, 1851.

DEAR SIR: I have at last been able to have those letters copied, about the road, and now send them to you. In reference to probable cost, recent information induces me to believe, that a road from the Mississippi to the Rio Grande, passing at the head of sea-navigation of all the principal rivers of Texas which communicate with the gulf, could be made for less than I formerly supposed.

If we take this distance at 850 miles, and the average cost of each mile, to make the rail-road complete, and bring it into use, at $40,000 the mile, it will make the cost of that part of the road $34,000,000.

If this part alone of the road was made, it would command all the travel. For, from the Rio Grande to San Diego, is a frontier line of the United States, on which military posts will have to be established, and roads connecting with these posts will have to be made, which will make that route passable and safe, and will occasion it gradually to become settled, and sooner or later to be turned into a rail-road. But we will suppose the whole to be a rail-road, and endeavor to estimate its probable cost and probable profits.

From the Paso to San Diego on the Pacific, is about 850 miles. If it be supposed that this part of the route will cost 50 per cent. more than the average cost per mile from the Mississippi to Paso, it will make the average of this part of the road $60,000 the mile, and bring the total cost of these 850 miles to $51,000,000. Then the whole road will cost as follows:

850 miles from the Mississippi to Paso, ...	$34,000,000
850 miles from Paso to San Diego, ...	51,000,000
Total,	$85,000,000

Twelve per cent. upon such an outlay would require an income of $10,200,000. This would be a gross income, out of which all expenses for repairs, attendance, &c., &c., &c. would have to be taken. Taking these at half the gross income, it would leave $5,100,000 to be divided, in order to yield an income upon the stock of 6 per cent. per annum.

The question now occurs, from what sources will this road derive such an income? We will consider two sources only—travelers and freight.

1st. *Travelers.*—In my letter of the 24th September, 1849, I take these at 50 each way per day, for 350 days, and at a charge of $68 for a through passage.

An extremely judicious friend, who has given much attention to these matters, says, that I am seriously wrong in both these items—seriously below the reality in reference to the number of travelers, and equally below what would be considered a cheap charge for the distance.

In his opinion 100 passengers, each way, would yet be much below the reality, and $150 for each passenger vastly below what each has now to pay. And at these rates, and with the time saved, the road would, without doubt, command the travel of the world from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Taking these rates, the income from passengers would be $10,500,000.

2d. *Freight.*—The same friend has remarked, that the road should be viewed in reference to the commerce it would generate and command, and not in reference to any profit from freight. That, except for passengers, it should be a free road, making no charge for freight, thereby enabling it to command the commerce of the world with the Pacific; and from this monopoly of commerce, vastly more wealth would be secured to the country, than could possibly be from any profit by a charge of freight and a consequently restricted commerce.

Freight is unquestionably a serious tax upon commerce; and the more freights are reduced, the more profitable commerce must be, and the more extensive its range. But the argument of my friend is, I think, in a case like this pushed to an extreme; and, in my opinion, the whole commerce between the Atlantic and Pacific may be monopolized and commanded by a moderate freight charge, making it vastly the cheaper of any route.

It is considered a good passage from New-York to San Francisco, by Cape Horn, if it occupy no more than 5 months, or 150 days. Now, by the rail-road route, as exhibited in my letter of the 24th September, 1849, a passenger train would move over this distance, at a rate of 20 miles the hour, in 11 days; and to San Diego in 8 days. At 15 miles the hour, it would require to San Francisco, 13 days; to San Diego, 10 days. And at the slow rate of 10 miles the hour, the time to reach San Francisco would be 17 days; to San Diego, 14 days.

Take any of these rates, and compare them with the 150 days of the usual sea voyage, and the difference is so vastly in favor of the road, as to ensure to it the monopoly of the whole trade. The point then to be guarded against is, not to destroy this decided and important advantage in time by an exorbitant freight charge.

Suppose, then, that no higher freight were charged on the road, than is charged on the sea-voyage; then, the moneyed charge would be the same on the road as on the sea-voyage, and all the difference of time would be gained by the shipper, a difference so vastly in his favor, that it must prevent all shipments by sea, and insure the whole trade to the road; and not only is there this difference in time in favor of the road, but the difference of interest upon the freight saved by time to the shipper, which would frequently be more than equivalent to the road-freight charge, and make the rail-road tantamount to a free road.

These considerations fulfil all the conditions of my friend's reasoning, in reference to the advantages of a free road, and yet justify a charge for wear, tear, and repairs, and for freight trains.

The average shipping freight charge is $25* the tun, which, on 150,000 tuns, would yield $3,750,000.

By the passenger trade we have..............	$10,500,000
And by the freight, as above,.................	3,750,000
Making a total of	$14,250,000

But the income required to insure 6 per cent. upon the stock (after paying all annual expenses) is $10,200,000: we have therefore from these two considerations (passengers and freight) an excess of four millions, which would justify a reduction of the charge per passenger to $100 each; or it will justify a serious reduction of our supposition in reference to amount of freight trade. Respectfully,

J. J. Abert,
Col. Corps. T. E.

Hon. V. E. Howard,
House of Representatives.

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* With very fast sailing vessels, as high as $40 the tun has been paid.

RED AND MISSISSIPPI RIVERS RAIL-ROAD.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *November* 30, 1850.

SIR:—Having been engaged by you, under the appropriation for the "survey of routes from the valley of the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean," to examine so much of the route as lies between the lower Mississippi, in Louisiana, and the Great Bend of Red River, in Arkansas, and having completed the work, I have now the honor to report:

Early in April I left Washington for the work, and on arriving at Louisville with my principal assistants, Messrs. J. K. Ford and S. Thayer Abert, proceeded to procure the equipment for the survey there. The floods of the Mississippi at that time covering the whole bottom land, it became impracticable to commence the survey at that extremity of the line, as originally intended; and, with your assent, I concluded to begin at the other end and work eastward. The party was accordingly dispatched to Fulton, by the way of the Red River, near which point I joined them, having taken my route by the way of the Arkansas River and the road from Little Rock to Washington, in Arkansas.

The party had been at work a week when I joined them, from which time I continued in direction of the work.

The country traversed between the Red River and the Washita is hilly. Between the Washita and the Mississippi level it may be described more particularly thus: At Fulton the Red River is about eight hundred feet wide, with banks about as high as the level of high water, and presenting no obstacle to bridging. The course of the river is at first south, and afterwards east.

At about a quarter of a mile back from the margin of the river the ground rises abruptly twenty-five feet to a table-land, which continues to the Bois d'Arc (or Boolock) river, about eight miles, as we ran obliquely down the Red River valley.

This stream runs southerly, and enters the Red River about ten miles below Fulton. Beyond the Bois d'Arc the country is hilly, with frequent appearances of rock. The Bodcom and Dorcheat are two other streams running southerly into the Red River; the first of which we cross at twenty, the last at forty miles from Fulton, as we ran; and these are the last Upper Red River streams which we meet.

After these there are two other streams, running eastwardly towards the Washita—the D'Arbonne on the south, or our right, and the Smacovert on the north, or our left. Presently the D'Arbonne inclines to the southeast, and the heads of another stream appear—the Loutre, which runs southeasterly into the Washita, and of course enters that stream above the D'Arbonne; then comes the Washita, running southerly; and near where we cross it the Bayou Bartholomew enters it, from a general direction of northeast, although for the last three miles of its course it is so bent from its general direction as to enter the Washita from the southeast; the Washita and Bartholomew being both navigable. At this point on the Washita the hilly country, with rock, ends, and the alluvial "bottom" of the Mississippi begins, but at a level of sixty feet above the bed of the Washita. Thence up the bank of the Bayou Bartholomew, the land is above water at all times; and at Bastrop, near where we leave this stream, the country, for four or five miles, is high and undulating.

Two or three miles beyond Bastrop, the hills on which it stands falls off suddenly, at a place called Red Hill, and at the foot of this comes Prairie Mer Rouge, three or four miles across, beyond which, and scarcely below the level of the prairie, the "swamp," or land subject to overflow, appears. Several streams, rivers, bayous, and sloughs, traverse this "swamp," running southerly, and there are occasionally points and ridges above even the highest waters. The names of the chief of these streams are given in the order in which they are met; they are the Gallion and Bonne Idee bayous, the De Hart swale, the Bœuf River, all of which run together into and through the lake and Bayou La Fourche: the Couloirs and Bayou Mason, the last being a navigable stream, coming from above the Arkansas line, and joining the Tensas about eighty miles below, whence they run together into the Washita, at Trinity. Between the Couloirs and the Bayou

Mason is a stretch of land, twelve miles in extent, higher by three or four feet than the swamp, and always above water. This ground is inhabited and cultivated, and, according to the evidence of the well-diggers, has a substratum of rock. It is called the "Mason Hills," and, increasing in height as we proceed eastward, terminates in a bluff on the Bayou Mason. These hills are said to extend north and south many miles, though not at all places above the floods, or continuously above the ordinary swamp, as we found them on our line. Beyond the Bayou Mason the swamp land continues eight and three-quarter miles, to the bank of Lake Providence, formerly a bend of the Mississippi, but now a pretty crescent-shaped lake, with its banks above the highest floods, and beautifully cultivated. Between the Bayou Mason and the lake are several streams running from the lake, the principal of which are Baxter's Bayou, Drew's Bayou, and the Tensas. At the foot of the lake, on the bank of the Mississippi River, stands the town of Lake Providence, the terminus of our work, but the commencement of the southern route from the valley of the Mississippi River to the Pacific Ocean.

I have described the country in the order in which we surveyed it, as it is not an independent work, but the first link of a line to the Pacific. I will discuss the location in the reverse order—that is, beginning at the Mississippi and running westward.

The line run over the ground above described, and the reasons which influenced us in adopting it, may be stated thus:

The proper place for crossing the Washita was assumed to be just below the mouth of Bayou Bartholomew, which is much further south than would be by a straight line drawn from Lake Providence to Fulton; but above that point the river has much bottom land subject to overflow, as is particularly the case near the state line, where, for an extent of sixty miles, there is no landing place from this cause. Besides this, it was an object to avoid an expensive bridge to cross the Bartholomew, which, being a navigable stream, would require a draw. Hence we aimed for the most direct practicable route from Providence to the mouth of the Bartholomew, and thence to Fulton. As my orders required an examination with reference to a rail-road, as well as to a common road, I will discuss the first, on which a detailed estimate has been made, and from which the location and cost of a common road may be deduced.

By much inquiry it was ascertained that the most favorable point for leaving the Mississippi River in that vicinity was at Lake Providence, about seventy miles above Vicksburg, as the Mississippi swamp is here comparatively narrow, and, for a portion of the distance, some elevated land is found. Many emigrants for the southwest pass through Lake Povidence, and the route seems to be generally recognized as a proper one. The town is on the river bank, at the foot of an old bend of the river, now a lake, and is a pleasant place of about five hundred inhabitants. Behind the town is the "swamp," intersected by several bayous, on the elevated margins of which are some fine plantations. The banks of the lake, being above water, have several beautiful residences. No plan is proposed different from those in ordinary use for the depot at the Mississippi terminus.

Suggestions have been made for opening an entrance from the river to the lake, and establishing the depot on its bank; but, although this would give a very excellent basin, difficulties, arising from the great rise and fall of the river, its swift current, and the loose character of the soil forming its banks, will prevent any measure of this kind being attempted without mature reflection. A good wharf-boat, securely moored, with inclined planes reaching from its deck to the level of the ground above, will be sufficient, at least for the beginning. This arrangement is not worse than the simple hoisting, common at many important depots. Sufficient depot accommodation may then be formed on the level of the village, and in its immediate vicinity. From this point we carry the line along the bank of the lake, which runs favorably for three miles; thence into the swamp, which extends to the Bayou Mason, and which is called the "Mason Swamp." Through this swamp several streams flow, which are escapes from the lake: the principal are the Bayous Tensas and Batu. They will be crossed by bridges, as I propose for all the streams, large and small, which run through the swamp; the reasons for which will be given hereafter. Across the Mason Swamp to the Bayou Mason is eight miles and three-quarters, and the height of embankment will vary from five to twelve feet, although there are but few points where it will be so high as that last named.

We cross the Bayou Mason, near the present ferry, by a bridge of one hundred feet span, and abutments forty feet high. The Mason is a stream of considerable magnitude, flowing from Arkansas; and, as it is navigable to and above the place where we propose crossing, the bridge should be provided with a draw. Beyond Bayou Mason, we meet the elevated lands called the "Mason Hills," before spoken of. They form a bluff on the bayou, and extend twelve miles on one course, entirely above the highest water, and therefore requiring little cost for constructing a road over them.

On leaving these hills, we cross the branches of a slough called "the Couloirs," which branches unite at a short distance below our line, forming there a proper bayou. From this point we encounter the swamp again, which continues ten miles and a quarter, crossing the Bœuf River at five miles and a half, and "De Hart's swale" at nine miles, from the Couloirs. The Bœuf River is one hundred feet wide, and the water rises about thirty feet. It is proposed to cross it about half a mile below the present ferry, on the plantation of Mr. Rash. It will require a bridge of one hundred feet span, with abutments thirty-five feet high. This river and the Bayou Mason have regular channels, and the water at its ordinary stage lies far below the banks: in the Mason, it is now twenty feet below the eastern or lowest bank; and in the Bœuf River twenty-one feet. The De Hart swale, on the contrary, is at the bottom of a general depression, extending half a mile towards the west, and one mile and a quarter towards the east. The approaches to this swale require a higher embankment than at any other place through the swamp. It will average from twelve to fifteen feet for a distance of one mile and three-quarters.

A mile and a half beyond the De Hart swale is the Bayou Bonne Idee, the banks of which are above the highest flood. The stretch of swamp last described, from the Couloirs, at the end of the Mason hills, to the Bonne Idee, is called the "Bœuf swamp," as the Bœuf River runs through the middle of it. It is 10¼ miles across, as I mentioned before, and the average height of embankment across it, exclusive of the high part of it before noticed, approaching the De Hart swale, is about seven feet. We cross the Bonne Idee, near the residence of Mr. Murrell, who lives on its eastern bank, on an elevated piece of land. A bridge of 100 feet span, with 20 feet abutments, will suffice to pass the water at its highest stage.

After crossing the Bonne Idee, we take advantage of a bend in that stream, lying nearly in our course, to follow its bank for two miles, which, being above the freshets, will require a bank not higher than two feet; thence we descend by a very gentle slope 1¼ miles, through another piece of swamp, called the Gallion swamp, to the Gallion Bayou; and beyond it still another half mile to the end of the swamp, the edge of Prairie Mer Rouge, on the land of Captain A. A. H. Knox. The three divisions of the swamp which I have named—that is, the Mason, the Bœuf, and the Gallion swamps—have no communication with each other north of our line: this may be inferred from the fact, that the highest floods in the several divisions do not occur at the same time, or even in the same year. The streams from which they are named have, therefore, independent channels, the banks being sufficiently high to prevent the water flowing from one to the other even in floods. In fact, between Bayou Mason and the River Bœuf there is no communication; while the Bœuf, Bonne Idee, and Gallion, do not unite until they have flowed several miles towards the south.* Hence the height of the freshets is not the same in these swamps. This is most perceptible in the case of the Gallion and Bœuf; the flood of the Bœuf coming from above, while that of the Gallion, being formed by the back-water of the junction, makes a difference of ten feet in the relative levels of the highest water.

From Lake Providence to the edge of Prairie Mer Rouge the line conforms generally to the course of the road usually traveled, but cuts off its bends. In a straight line the distance between these points is 36¼ miles, by the usual road, 43½, and by our line, 39¾ miles. The actual survey was carried over the ordinary road, and the place for our projected line fixed by authentic information and by reconnoissance. I derived much information from James O. Drew, Esq., and Captain Maxwell, surveyor, both of Lake Providence: from Mr. Murrell and Mr. Blackman, both of whom live in the swamp, and are highly intelligent in regard to it; and from Captain Knox, of Prairie Mer Rouge, who has given his mind very fully to the subject.

I have also availed myself of the information of A. O. Wooldridge, Esq., engineer of the state, who had previously carried a survey over the same region. As the matter of constructing a road over this country—the dreaded Mississippi Swamp—is the only real or unusual difficulty which was anticipated on the route, I have to state that I consider these difficulties to have been much exaggerated, and that the swamp is not impracticable for the construction of a permanent work, at reasonable cost. The material is not properly that of a swamp or morass, but merely the deposit from the waters not yet high enough to escape the annual overflows. When dry, it is tenacious and firm, which character it maintains to indefinite depths.

Mr. Murrell's well, on the banks of the Bonne Idee, 27 feet deep, and lower than the bottom of the bayou, showed at the bottom gravel as large as a hickory nut, mixed with a chocolate-colored clay. In certain places in the swamp, standing water does not penetrate below a few inches. Hence an embankment of any weight may be sustained, and constructions of masonry be made permanent by a good platform foundation below. Neither is the soil of a quality to "run" in still water, though in certain cases it might be advisable to give the sides of the embankments a flatter slope than is usual.

Timber of excellent quality abounds; the "over-cup oak" is the prevailing growth of the swamp, and no timber is better for constructions of the character we are discussing.

I saw the string-pieces of a bridge over the Bonne Idee which were built of this timber. It was partly submerged in ordinary seasons, and entirely so at times of flood, the weight being sufficient to keep it from floating.

This timber was perfectly sound, although it had been lying ten years in that very trying position. The soil of much of the country is proper for bricks; hence, with durable timber, good earth for embankment, and materials for brick, we have at hand all the requisites for the road.

I conclude, therefore, that there is no objection on account of unusual difficulties of construction, excepting the interruption and injury to incomplete works from high water, which latter may be guarded against by bringing the embankments, as far as constructed, to their full heights, and when the water is about to rise, protecting the extremities by revetments of timber and plank. The embankment of a road always above water would be, for the greater part of the distance, less than ten feet in height, and never twenty feet, excepting for a few hundred feet in length at the approaches of the streams. Hence the cost will not be so formidable as has been imagined. But the great question is, if the construction of such a bank across the whole swamp will not be making a dam to hold back the freshet water, and thus bring it to a higher level, doing injury to the country above and to the work itself. It would seem that, if there were any impediment to the movement of the immense mass of water which, in seasons of flood, covers the country for many miles inland, it would cause the water to rise against and over the bank, and finally sweep it away, after having done great injury to the upper country. Of course, if openings of sufficient magnitude be not left through the embankment, such will be the effect, though less in degree than would be produced by corresponding circumstances in a mountainous region, where the floods rush in from their *sources*, or where the face of the country has a considerable slope. But there is no reason why openings of sufficient magnitude should not be made, for these, as will presently appear, need not be so considerable as would be judged without observation. The highest floods come from the water escaping over the banks of the Mississippi and lower Arkansas rivers, where they have not been sufficiently leveed, or where the levees have been broken away. This body of water spreads itself over a wide extent of flat country, and continues to deepen until the surface attains the level due to its source. At this point it stands a long time, having a scarcely perceptible current, excepting towards the streams of drainage, and in the beds of those streams. This is the universal statement of the inhabitants, and observation confirms the account. Thus we do not see in the swamp any evidence of the passage of large bodies of water with a swift current: on the contrary, every evidence is against it, amongst which I may cite the instance of the present bridge over the Bonne Idee Bayou, which being built for use in low stages, of timber very little heavier than water, kept to its place by a few stakes, and resting partly on the bottom, is covered at seasons of floods by fifteen feet of water; and though almost ready to float, is not moved out of position.

Now, the Bonne Idee is one of the streams of the Bœuf swamp, the largest of the three divisions of the swamp of which I have spoken; and all this goes to show that the flood-water has more the character of a lake than of a running stream, and that the size of the openings for passing the water bears no relation to those which would be necessary for passing a running stream of equal width and depth. A consideration of the cause of these floods, namely, the escape of the Mississippi waters from above, and those of the lower Arkansas, will show that openings sufficient to pass these escape waters are sufficient also for draining the swamp. If there were a break through the bank of the Mississippi as wide as the whole width of that stream, and enough water poured through this opening to lower the surface of the river, with a current of five miles an hour, one foot, these openings, which together would equal the width of the river through which the water would flow, with a depth of five feet, at the rate of one mile an hour, would suffice to pass the same amount of water. But in case even of a mistake on this point, in construction, if the openings be too small, but not extravagantly so, the sole effect will be to back up the water until by this greater head it attained a greater velocity, thereby causing an additional quantity of water to pass. The difference of a foot in the level of the surface of the water above and below the bank would cause the passage of a body of water under such bridges as we propose to construct, many times greater than would be passed with the ordinary sluggish movement of the waters.

This holding back of the water would continue but for a few days before it would be brought to equilibrium, or retire to its proper channels, and leave the cultivated country above ready for the labors of the planters. It is, moreover, not necessary to proceed rashly in the construction, as it is possible to prepare the work for travel before contracting the openings to their permanent minimum. For this I would, in the beginning, construct none but the lighter embankments of earth; and as all the places of the heavier embankments are in the approaches to the openings, I would make a temporary substitute of trestles at those places, until by minute observation, precise knowledge on the proper permanent contraction could be obtained. By this means another object would be subserved, by providing a way for the transportation of the materiel for the permanent work.

In accordance with these views, I would cross every channel in the swamp, large or small, by bridges, instead of the small culverts which would be applicable in other localities; and by multiplying these until the total opening became sufficient to pass at least a foot of the surface water of the Mississippi River, I think the drainage would be entirely effected.

I have given nearly half a mile of bridging through the entire swamp, and have located it at such places as to secure a depth generally as great as ten feet, and frequently much greater, and have estimated accordingly.

The material for the banks will be dug up from the sides, and the trenches so made may be used, at discretion, to lead the waters to discharge at favorable points, or by leaving traverses to hold it in pools, and receive the sediment with a view of refilling them. I have seen this latter process applied on a small scale, but very effectually, by individuals near the mouth of the Mississippi. It has been mentioned, that at points through the swamp are spots and ridges of land elevated above the floods, from causes not always evident. The Mason hills, although generally but a few feet above the swamp, have a substratum of rock. There are many residents along the line of the road through these hills, and from some of them I learnt that in sinking their wells they had encountered a soft rock—in some instances "rotten limestone," in others, "freestone." The water of the latter is very good—that of the former slightly fœtid. The wells were from 30 to 40 feet deep.

Other elevated places through the swamp were the banks of the streams, which, according to the universal rule in this country, are higher than the country back of them.

This is as true in regard to the Mississippi as to the smallest bayous; the slope of the country from the bank of the Mississippi within the levee, to the bank of the Washita, a distance of 53 miles in a straight line, being 20 feet; and the highest water of the Mississippi 28 7-10 feet higher than that of the Washita. We availed ourselves of this law to obtain high ground for our line wherever the streams ran in the proper direction. More space has been given to the discussion of this part of the route than will be to any equal extent of the remainder, for the reason that little knowledge and much misapprehension exists on the subject of the practicability of ways through the "Mississippi swamp," and because the observations made have general application to other parts of the swamp than that over which the line was carried, and probably to the whole region subject to overflow formed by deposit from the Mississippi River.

On leaving the swamp, our line passed near the residence of Captain Knox, over Prairie Mer Rouge, and in a distance of four miles came to an abrupt rise from the plane called the Red Hill, which is the border of a range of hills stated to begin at Pine Bluff, on the Arkansas River, and, running southerly, to cross the Bayou Bartholomew about 12 miles above Prairie Mer Rouge; whence, continuing to the south, they cross our line and diminish in height, until they are lost in a table which reaches the Washita, near the plantation of Senator Downs. We passed through the town of Bastrop, which is built on these hills, and found its elevation to be sixty feet above the prairie, and about one hundred feet above the water of the Bartholomew.

Two miles beyond Bastrop we strike that bayou at Point Pleasant, sixty feet lower than Bastrop, but still above high water; we then followed the general course of the bayou on good ground all the way to the Washita, crossing Bayou Saira and Bayou Bœuf, which now discharge their waters into the Washita, but which, in high stages, reverse the direction of their flow and assist in carrying it off. These will require bridges. By following the bayou, we are carried three miles to the south, out of our way, to Collier's Point, the place selected for crossing the Washita; but we avoid by this two crossings, with draw bridges, of the Bartholomew, in case we continue to Collier's; or one if we consent to cross the Washita at the village above Collier's, which is an inferior place, and involving heavier expenditure. The line from Knox's just described, and which was traced on the ground, is not the one proposed for construction. The bends of the Bartholomew are too abrupt, and the Bastrop hills would require deep excavation. I would, therefore, starting from Knox's, leave Bastrop about two miles on the right, or north, and run through the foot of the hills, where they have inferior elevation; thence to the southernmost point of the bend of the Bartholomew, on the plantation of Senator Downs, when we fall into the line as traced on the ground. From this southern point we turn northerly three miles, until we arrive on the bank of the Washita, opposite to Collier's Point, which, as before stated, is the place selected for crossing. This projected line is on lower ground than that actually traced, being sixty feet lower opposite Bastrop than the ground occupied by that village: this is judged of by the depth of Beauchamp's well, at his brick-yard; but the greater directness, easier grades, and lighter excavation through the hills, serve to sanction the selection of the route.

The material composing the Bastrop Hills is sand and clay; the water stratum, 80 feet in depth, is a fine white sand. The clay is good for brick-making, and many are made in the vicinity. Where we strike the Washita, we are on a table above the highest rise of the river, with a fine bluff (Collier's Point) still higher than the table, on the opposite side, and no bottom land whatever.

The river, at the highest water-line, is 600 feet across, and at the low water-line, 310 feet. The bed is composed of sand and coarse gravel, from the eastern shore to the middle, beyond which is a rock-reef, extending diagonally down stream to the western shore. At this river, at this point, the Mississippi alluvion ends, and the hilly country, frequently with rock in the hills, begins, and continues to the Red River. The Washita River rises in extreme floods 41 feet above the low water mark, and has, when low, a depth of from 9½ to 11½ feet in the channel at Collier's Point. The bridge to span it should be 600 feet long, piers sixty feet high; and as the river is navigated, the bridge should be provided with a draw. Beyond the Washita we are on the ridge between that stream and the Loutre, a tributary entering about six miles below our crossing. We turn northwesterly, and continue on or near the crest of the ridge some seven miles, when it becomes necessary to decide whether to cross the Loutre, and get on the ridge between it and the D'Arbonne, and then turn northerly, or to keep on the ridge northerly to the head-waters of the Loutre, near El Dorado, in Arkansas, and then turn to the west on the old trail of the Quapaw Indians. The country beyond the Loutre was more populous; the roads in better order; supplies more easily obtained, and information more reliable and abundant.

It was decided to cross the Loutre, which we did at Brown's Ferry. The country between the Washita and this point is rolling, but favorable for construction. There is rock in the hills, which became visible at Dr. Collier's spring, near the Washita, but not elsewhere. The soil is good for bricks, and many are made near our line. The Loutre will be crossed by a bridge of 150 feet span and 25 feet high, which is sufficient to pass the highest water. The western shore of the river is low, however, for a distance of three-fourths of a mile, and is much like the Mississippi Swamp: it will require a bank from ten to eighteen feet high to bring the road above high water. The line is continued eastward to the D'Arbonne side of the ridge, towards Farmersville, the county-seat of Union Parish, which place we leave one mile and a half to the left by the actual line, and three and a half by the projected line, and continuing on the D'Arbonne side of the ridge, pass near a place called Spearsville, six miles beyond which we cross the state line into Arkansas, 42½ miles from the Washita; and thence continue twenty miles further, in a general northwest course, to Darden's, on the road from El Dorado to Springhill, and near the dividing ridge between the Smacovert and D'Arbonne before described. If, instead of crossing the Loutre, we had continued up the ridge between that stream and the Washita to El Dorado, and thence turned westward, the two lines would have joined at Darden's, the distance being about the same.

We found the country, after crossing the Loutre, very hilly, with abundance of rock, until after passing Farmersville. Beyond Farmersville it has still a very irregular surface, and we lose sight of the rock until we approach Spearsville. Near the Arkansas line there is much sand, the roads in some places being deep with it. It is not, however, difficult to accommodate a good line to the country with reasonable curvature and grades of fifty feet to the mile.

From Darden's we continue westward, on the ridge before mentioned, (said to be the Quapaw trail,) to Col. Bucknor's, at Beechland Post-Office. Here another choice of routes presents itself, and we may incline northerly towards Springhill, lying ten miles east of Fulton, and, crossing the Bois d'Arc, Bodcom, and Dorcheat rivers, near their sources, reach Fulton by that route in a distance of 58 miles, or we may continue westward on the same ridge ten miles further; and thence, inclining to the south, pass into the valley of the Dorcheat, and following down the slope of one of its branches, called Big Creek, cross the Dorcheat just below the junction, 26½ miles from Beechland; thence, following up the opposite slope of the Dorcheat, and the ridge between it and the Bodcom, descend obliquely the Bodcom slope, and cross that stream three miles south of Louisville, the county-seat of Lafayette county; thence, following up the slope of its valley and that of the Little Bodcom, its tributary, to the source of the latter, pass into the valley of the Bois d'Arc, and, crossing that stream, reach the table bordering the Red River, on which we keep to its edge back of Fulton; then, descending, reach the Red River at Fulton, with a distance from the Dorcheat crossing of 40⅝ miles, and from Beechland of 67 miles, or nine miles further than by the other route. The line, however, was run over the latter route, as it enabled us to examine the ground with reference to a nearer terminus on the Red River than Fulton. The country, from Darden's towards Fulton, on the ridge between the D'Arbonne and Smacovert, is high and undulating, but presenting no obstacle to cheap and safe construction. To pass into the valley of the Dorcheat, we have to surmount a summit requiring 20 feet cutting, from which there is nothing unusual to the place of crossing. This will require a bridge of 100 feet span, with abutments 25 feet high, and beyond it a bank a mile and a half long, and about nine feet high. From this we attain the ridge between Dorcheat and Bodcom by easy slopes, and, while on the ridge, have a level plain; thence, descending to the Bodcom, along the slope, we find sinuosities requiring curvatures. The soil between the two streams is sand, clay and gravel, easily excavated, but no rock. I saw gravel here in which the pebbles were as large as eggs; and many of the streams ran over fine white sand. The Bodcom must be crossed by a bridge of 100 feet span, with abutments 35 feet high, and there will be about a mile of bottom land requiring embankment. Beyond this, along the slope of the Bodcom valley, and that of its tributary, the Little Bodcom, and through the dividing ridge into the valley of the Bois d'Arc, 17 miles, the gravel is quite irregular, and large quantities of rock appear in the hills—the first met since entering the state.

We cross the Bois d'Arc by a 100-feet bridge and 30-feet abutments, with a mile of embankment on its eastern side. Beyond the Bois d'Arc we rise at once to the table-land of the Red River, on which nothing but a low embankment will be required.

From this table, within half a mile of Fulton, we descend on the slope, obliquely, with a 50-feet grade, to the level land lying just above high water, and on which the town of Fulton is built. On this we may find ample depot accommodations. To cross the Red River would require a bridge 800 feet long, with a draw, with piers 35 feet high, and placed on piled and platform foundations.

From the crossing of the Dorcheat we might have reached the Red River at a point nearer by 20 miles than Fulton, although nearly as far west as that place. For this we would have continued nearly due west from the Dorcheat, crossing the Bodcom at a lower point of its course than the present, and passing below the mouth of the Bois d'Arc, to Conway, 30 miles south of Fulton in a straight line, and 60 by the course of the Red River. As this route runs directly across the ridges, it is probable that it would cost more per mile to contract than by our present line; still, as it is but half as long, there will be a material saving of first cost, with the advantage of a diminution of no less than 20 miles in the whole length of the road.

As a line of levels was carried from the Mississippi to the Red River at Fulton, it may be well to give the relative heights of those streams, as well as the Washita—not that it is of consequence as regards the location of a road, but as it may be of some general interest.

From the Mississippi, at Lake Providence, a straight line to our crossing-place over the Washita is 53 miles in length; but inclines a little down stream, or to the south, viz: 6½ miles. The highest water of the Mississippi is 3 7-10 feet higher than the highest ground of the village of Lake Providence, immediately within the levee. This latter may be called the natural bank of the Mississippi River; for one-fourth of a mile back of this it is five feet lower, and the swamp begins. The east bank of the Washita is 20 feet lower than this, and the highest water of the Washita five feet lower still, or 28 7-10 feet lower than the highest water of the Mississippi at Lake Providence. The lowest water of the Mississippi could not be ascertained with precision; but that which we found by inquiry to be the lowest, was 7-10ths of a foot higher than that of the *high* water of the Washita, or 41 7-10ths feet higher than the low water of the Washita.

The low-water mark of the Washita at Collier's Point is 190 feet lower than the low-water mark of the Red River at Fulton. The distance from one place to the other, in a direct line, is 117 miles; but, measured on the map from Fulton down the Red River to the mouth of Black River, (a prolongation of the Washita.) is 431 miles; and from the mouth of Black River, up the Washita to Collier's Point, 187 miles. Now, if the declivity of the Red River and Washita be the same, this will indicate a fall in both these streams of 9½ inches per mile. There is, however, reason to believe that the declivity of the Washita is much less than this; for the current is quite sluggish, and freshets do not swell the river at a rate of more than a foot a day. It is, moreover, asserted that, in 1844, the rise in the Mississippi produced slack water in the Washita at Collier's Point. This would indicate a very gentle declivity; and Dr. Collier considers that the declivity is not greater than 45 feet between Collier's Point and the debouche of the Washita into the Red River—a distance by the river of 187 miles.

If we assume the declivity at 2½ inches to the mile, it will give 39 feet fall, and a declivity to the Red River of 6 38-100 inches to the mile.

It was stated that the high water of the Mississippi at Lake Providence was determined to be 28 7-10 feet above the high water of the Washita at Collier's Point. From Lake Providence, down the Mississippi to the mouth of Red River, is 240 miles; and from Collier's Point, down the Washita to the same point, is 209 miles. The Mississippi is said to have a declivity of two inches per mile; but in freshets it must be more—say 2½. This would give the descent of the surface of the river, from Lake Providence to the Red River, 50 feet. At this period, in 1844, it is said there was slack water at Collier's Point. If by the term "slack water," as popularly used, is meant a gentle current, it would be such as would be due to a fall in the Washita of 50—28 7-10=21 3-10 feet, or 255 6-10 inches, in a distance of 209 miles, or 1 22-100 inch to the mile. Taking, then, the declivity of the Washita to be 1 22-100 inch per mile, we find the declivity of the Red River to be 5 82-100 inches per mile. The minimum limit of the declivity of the Red River is 5 29-100 inches per mile, and this is obtained by assuming a level for the bed of the Washita. As I mentioned before, these speculations have no bearing on our work, but may subserve other important interests.

Having now given the topography of the country through which the line passes, with incidental remarks bearing on the construction, but little more will be necessary.

The rock which we saw was universally a sandy, ferruginous material, or a conglomerate, united by a ferruginous paste. It is fit for small constructions, and for backing. I have seen it applied for foundations, and for chimneys; and, in these cases, it had come from the quarry in good shape and size, and bore the weather well. The absence of heavy frost is, of course, a favorable circumstance. The character of the soil for excavation, judged not only by surface indications and the escarpment of streams, but also by wells, shows that it is mostly of easy excavation, and none beyond the medium. It is generally of sand or clay. The sides of the wells are in most cases left without curbing, and stand well. They are from twenty to forty feet deep, and the water stratum generally sand. In the vicinity of the line, for nearly its whole extent, soil may be found proper for bricks, as well as fuel for burning them; and this material may be used extensively. Lime is made some twenty miles north of Fulton, and is furnished at that place at twenty-five cents per bushel. Rosendale cement is now brought to Fulton, and sold there at $3 per barrel. If large quantities were required, it could be imported for less, or the cement obtained from a nearer place, viz.: Louisville, Ky., where it is made of excellent quality. Timber abounds, (the whole line having been run through forest,) of all varieties, suitable for use on public works. I have seen oaks, in their several varieties, *i. e.* white, black, red, post, pin, chinquopin, water, burr, and over-cup; yellow and pitch pine, red cedar, (in the Red River bottom,) yellow and honey locust, beech, (east of the Dorcheat,) cypress, black mulberry, black walnut, white and black ash, sycamore, hickory, pecan, chinquopin, sweet and black gum, elm and sassafras—the last proving very large. The Bois d'Arc, also, is a hard, yellow wood, useful for wedges, keys, handles, &c. There is no chestnut, the chinquopin, (a smaller variety,) being the substitute; nor is there white pine, hemlock, spruce, or larch. Through the woods, pine and oak, in their several varieties, are the most common.

The streams to be crossed, other than those specified, are such as not to require large works to pass the water. I have estimated for about forty arch culverts, of various spans, from six to twenty feet; and these, with the bridges through the swamp, not before mentioned, sixteen in number, with abutments from ten to eighteen feet high, constitute all the large constructions in masonry; the rest are in the form of box culverts or brick barrels. The system which throws the location on the ridges, causes the streams to be crossed near their sources, and saves the necessity for heavy constructions in masonry. Good foundations, too, for masonry, may be had by the use of platforms, to distribute the weight, and, in some few instances, by the use of piles. The supply of fuel for engines is nearly exhaustless; but for water, there will be many instances where pumping must be resorted to, as in those cases no springs or streams, with sufficient head, can be found. This is, of course, the case wherever the line lies on the crests of the ridges. It is not easy, at all times, to bring to the work those supplies and materials for construction not produced in the vicinity; but at certain seasons, when the waters are up, no point of the line is very distant from some place which may be reached by water. By taking good advantage of this circumstance, and by completing such portions of the road in the beginning as will facilitate transportation to other portions, the supplies may be tolerably well regulated. I annex the results of a detailed estimate for a rail-road, with a single track, and the necessary turn-outs. It is given in divisions, which are made at the points where we would diverge from the present line, to traverse other routes which have been indicated in this report.

DETAILED ESTIMATE.

Length of division.	Names of places at points of division.		Quantity in yards, and cost for excavating rock and earth, including hauling and incidental expenses.		Quantity in yards, and cost of masonry, including excavation and preparation of foundations.		Length and cost of superstructure of bridges.		Length and cost of superstructure of track, including turnouts.		Cost of depots and water stations.	Total cost for each division of grading, masonry and bridging.	Total cost for each division of superstructure of track and depots.	Cost per mile of grading, masonry, and bridging.	Cost per mile of track and depot.	Total cost per mile, exclusive of engineering, equipment, and contingencies.	Total cost of construction.
Miles.			Yards.	Dollars.	Yds.	Dolls.	Feet.	Dolls.	Miles.	Dollars.							
40.7	From Fulton to Dorcheat	Earth,	762,800	149,420	6,792	60,467	220	6,100	42.73	$341,840	$19,943	$215,987	$361,783	$5,307	$8,889	$14,196	$577,770
		Rock,	35,000														
26.3	From Dorcheat to Beechland	Earth,	712,000	106,800	5,638	33,287	150	3,250	27.62	220,893	12,624	143,337	233,517	5,450	8,879	14,329	376,854
5.8	From Beechland to Darden's	Earth,	168,268	25,240	935	6,235	......	.....	6.09	48,720	2,784	31,475	51,504	5,427	8,880	14,307	82,979
62.5	From Darden's to Washita	Earth,	1,712,238	311,836	10,698	77,317	150	4,500	65.62	524,960	30,000	393,653	554,960	6,362	8,879	15,241	948,613
		Rock,	55,000														
59.4	From Washita to Lake Providence	Earth,	2,344,890	351,734	22,149	168,702	2,950	58,000	62.37	498,960	31,849	578,436	530,809	9,738	8,936	18,658	1,109,245
194.7	From Fulton to Lake Providence	Earth,	5,700,196	945,030	46,212	346,008	3,407	71,850	....	1,635,373	$97,200	$1,362,888	$1,732,573	$7,000	$8,898	$15,898	$3,095,461
		Rock,	90,000														

SUMMARY.

Total cost of construction	$3,095,461
Engineering and contingencies	200,000
Equipment, locomotives, cars, &c	270,000
Whole cost, with equipment	3,565,461

Equal to $18,313 per mile.

From this estimate, it appears that a rail-road for a single track, with iron 60 pounds to the yard, and otherwise well constructed, will cost about three and a half millions, or less than twenty thousand dollars per mile; which, compared with similar works in other parts of the country, is a moderate cost. In case it be deemed best to strike the Red River below Fulton, at Conway, we leave the present line at the Dorcheat, and instead of turning northerly, as at present, continue the general west course, by which we will be brought to the Red River at Conway, in a distance of 20½ miles, in place of 40 7-10 miles, as by the precedent line. We thus save 19 2-10 miles of distance, and $272,563 of cost in construction, (equipment, engineering, &c., remaining the same,) provided the cost per mile be the same as on the other line. But as the projected route to Conway will have to cross the ridges, it is possible it may cost more per mile; and for this allowing $50,000, leaves the total saving $223,000; giving the cost of the whole road $3,342,000, and its length 175½ miles. In case we diverge at Beechland to take the route to Fulton by the way of Springhill, we reach Fulton in a distance from Beechland of 58 miles, instead of 67, as by the route surveyed; thus saving nine miles in distance, $128,000 in cost—giving the cost of the whole road $1,437,000, and its length 185¾ miles.

In case, after crossing the Washita, we do not cross the Loutre, but keep between it and the Washita, turning the heads of the Loutre near El Dorado, and falling into the present line at Darden's, ten miles from El Dorado, the distance will be about the same; and the cost and repairs of a bridge and heavy embankments over the Loutre and its bottom lands saved. This will not be less than $30,000 in first cost. It is probable, moreover, that the ten miles between El Dorado and Darden's has more favorable ground than any continuous te miles on the present route. Hence I judge the route by El Dorado to b preferable.

Just east of the Washita, in case we wish to avoid the bend to the southward which the Bartholomew makes before entering the Washita, and run more directly to Washita City, from a point in the present line south of Bastrop, we will have to cross the Bartholomew once with a draw-bridge, and the Washita at a place inferior to the present—Collier's Point. The line will, besides, on lower ground require heavier embankment. But we will save the two bridges over the Saira and Bœuf bayous, and also three miles of distance. The cost of the two routes will be nearly the same; and the question of a draw-bridge over the Bartholomew on the one hand, and three additional miles of distance on the other, must influence the choice.

The above communicates all the information I have gathered in relation to a rail-road between Lake Providence and the Red River, near Fulton, constructed in the best and most permanent manner usual in the United States. Modifications may be made to lessen the cost, and in some cases temporary constructions may be adopted. Thus, through the swamps it would be expedient to build the abutments and piers of all the bridges of timber, and make the approaches to the bridges over the low grounds of trestles. By this, two points will be gained: the exact necessary amount of water-way may be ascertained by observation, and a road provided by which to transport material for the permanent construction.

A piled or trestled road across the swamp, of the necessary height, and properly braced, would not cost less than an embanked road, and would not have the quality of permanency belonging to the latter.

A *common road*, from Lake Providence to the Washita, to be kept above water at all times, would be located near the line traced. The earth-work would cost $400,000; timbers, piers, and trestles for the bridges, $5,000; and their superstructure, $13,000; total, $418,000. But if built so as to be serviceable eight months in the year, and then given up to the overflow, it might be built for $100,000. But no road built of merely the earth of the swamp, could be kept of a good surface without protection. Plank is by all means the best covering for the locality; and to convert either of the above into a plank-road would require, from Lake Providence to the Washita, $60,000 in addition. Beyond the Washita, which would be crossed by a ferry, the line traced by our survey indicates very well the proper route for a common road; and on this line a road embanked sufficiently for drainage, with good side ditches, culverts, and bridges, may be built for $1,000 per mile, or $140,000 to Fulton. This, however, does not contemplate any other surface to the road than the contiguous soil. If covered with plank the cost would be double, or $280,000. A good common road above freshets may, then, be built from Lake Providence to Fulton, for $558,000, or a plank, road, for $758,000. Considered merely as a local work, without reference to the extension towards the Pacific, a plank-road from the Mississippi to the Washita, and a common road thence to the Red River at Conway, would be such as would best subserve the interests of the community. This would cost $593,000.

All of which is respectfully submitted, by

W. H. Sidell,
Civil Engineer in charge, and United States Agent.

J. J. Abert, *Chief of Topographical Bureau.*

SOUTH-WESTERN RAIL-ROAD PROSPECTS, ETC.

This is a period in the history of the world in which *advancement* is emphatically the order of the day: kingdoms and empires that have been slumbering for ages are now awaking to the importance of intercommunication upon the well-being of man, and are exerting their gigantic energies to open great highways of commerce throughout the world.

The arts and sciences are advancing with a rapidity never before known; while new discoveries and inventions give facility and impetus to the onward march of our race to the ultimatum of human destiny.

The spirit of improvement has seized upon the masses of the people; and its wide-spread influence is seen and felt in its meliorating effects upon their physical, intellectual, and moral condition.

Where this spirit has prevailed, it has overcome prejudice; aroused indolence to energy; supineness to effort; given new impulses to trade, and multiplied the sources of wealth and happiness to the laboring classes.

Cheap and rapid communication between the interior and our seaboard towns is a subject of the most vital importance to our prosperity and well-being.

Men of eminent ability, whose genius is guided in its researches by the light of revelation, as well as of reason, have taken up this subject with an earnestness which its importance invites, and presented the result of their observations to the public, which has been reflected upon the dark portions of the world, until its reciprocal blessings are felt by all.

Of all the means of artificial inland intercommunication, rail-roads afford the most desirable facilities, which modern developments, in their adaptation for transportation and travel, have so far engrafted upon the business of the country, as to render them absolutely necessary to our prosperity.

The assembling of this Convention may well be considered as the most important epoch in the history of Louisiana, and the South-western states generally; and it is proper that we avail ourselves of the present aroused sentiment of the people, to establish and permanently engraft upon this portion of the country and its administration, such a system of internal improvement as shall be best calculated, in its progress and final completion, to connect and bring to one common conveying point, the products of this portion of our country.

The city of New-Orleans may justly be considered the great emporium of the South; the commercial centre and heart of this portion of our confederacy; from whence, if she is true to herself, must radiate an influence that, whilst it will bring to her increased wealth, cannot fail to send abroad, even to the shores of the Pacific, an influence which will cross that ocean, and bring back rich returns from the eastern dominions of Asia. It must be apparent to every reflecting mind, that unless we enter at once upon an extended system of rail-road enterprise, commensurate with our wants and necessities, as compared with other parts of the country, we shall not only remain stationary, but actually retrograde. If these things are not apparent to every intelligent mind, reason would fail to make it plainer.

Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas, should lose no time in providing, by legislation, for the early commencement and rapid prosecution of such work, within their respective borders, upon such an agreed scale as shall serve as connecting avenues of transportation and travel, thereby creating a system of intercommunication, as may best develop the great resources of the country, and arouse to action the now dormant energies of the people.

In the outset of these recommendations, it may be well to briefly state, that there is an increasing necessity for having all connecting roads constructed of the same gauge, which the South-western states should not for a moment lose sight of. The "*wide gauge*," as it is called, should be adopted at once, and the iron rails placed six feet apart—a subject which should engage the early attention of the respective legislatures of those states, that it may be provided for by law. In this mode, the cars, locomotive engines, turn-plates, and machinery, would have a uniformity that would ensure a facile adaptation, and change from one road to another. Two of the longest and most important roads in the world use the "*wide gauge*," the Erie, and the Russian road between St. Petersburg and Moscow.

Every one looks with certainty to the early construction of the projected rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Mississippi; thence running west to intersect the two great trunk lines between Memphis and Charleston, and Mobile and Chicago, the former now urging to completion, and the latter in rapid progress of construction. Yet there is one suggestion in regard to the New-Orleans and Jackson road, which I may be pardoned for making at this time, in order that the company having it in charge may, at the inception of the work, make adequate provision for doing the business that will certainly press upon it with greater force than the most sanguine will at this time anticipate. Such has been the experience upon the great Erie Rail-road, that even thus early, (not yet six months in operation,) the directory are casting about to make provision for another track. Let the road-bed be constructed for a double track, that as soon as the rails are placed upon one, the other may also be in a state of preparation for the rails, no practical mind will doubt that the transportation and travel upon this line will justify it, else New-Orleans must perish in her efforts to advance, by the acquisition of renewed commerce, traffic and travel from that portion of the country drained by the tributaries of the Upper Mississippi. In that mode, the company will not only be amply prepared to accommodate all the business that may concentrate there, but to invite it from other numerous competing avenues. The time has come when timid, or doubtful half-way facilities for trade and travel, will neither promote nor satisfy the enterprising march of all the commercial and industrial pursuits of this advancing age.

There is no time to be lost: let the capital and energies of the people, both in Mississippi and Louisiana, sufficient to build this road, be combined and concentrated, and the work pushed forward with vigor to an early completion. Permit me to tell you, Louisianians, that one fatal step now will forever blight the realization of your anticipations of making New-Orleans the queen city of the South.

It has now become a settled question, that the rich commerce of the West, drawn off to the Atlantic seaboard by the numerous artificial lines of canals and rail-roads, already in operation, and in process of completion, can never be regained and brought back to find a market through former channels; hence the greater the necessity for the South to enter at once into the field of operation, for an organized system of internal improvement, best calculated to create and bring into activity and usefulness the combined means and energies of the people of every county, city, town, and village, in each of these states. Let the leading men, at all their primary assemblies, embrace such occasions to address the people orally upon these subjects, until every man shall become imbued with a just sense of the wants and necessities of that part of the country in which he lives—pushing forward from rill to river, until it shall swell into one mighty flood, gaining strength, like an avalanche, until it shall uproot that lethargy of sentiment which holds in check the enterprising mind.

There is no feature in modern progress for obtaining means, in addition to voluntary subscriptions, for the construction of rail-roads, in the new and less populous portions of the United States, half so safe and effective in every sense, as subscriptions of stock by the regular constituted municipal authorities of cities, towns, and villages, and by the respective county courts; thus constituting the people at once stockholders, thereby identifying them directly with its prosperity, developing at one and the same time the energies of the whole country, a striking evidence in favor of the security of the road, and the ability of every section of our country to build roads without resorting to borrowed capital, even to make the road-bed, so fatal to many of the most important enterprises in this country.

When the people properly understand its effects upon themselves and the country, they will come out in a mass in favor of the measure, and one sentiment will pervade the minds of all, creating a spirit of commendable rivalry in all industrial pursuits, which must in time revolutionize in sentiment the whole South-western states, build up manufactories, and advance us in all our agricultural and commercial relations, (and engraft upon our people an awakened system of home industry and self-reliance, making us more respected both at home and abroad, and no longer tributary to the other states, and the rebuking influences of their citizens,) producing within our own borders all the necessaries and comforts of life, as good and cheaply as they can be procured abroad, truths that must press themselves upon every patriotic mind.

The Gulf of Mexico may justly be considered the heart of the ocean, through which must pass the commerce, travel, and mail facilities of Europe and the Eastern states, onward over the Isthmus routes to the Pacific shores, until the completion of our proposed system of rail-roads from New-Orleans, over the fertile prairies of Opelousas, on to Texas and to the Pacific by the El Paso and Gila route, and from the Mississippi River, opposite Memphis, to Little Rock, and Fulton, on Red River; thence to a converging point to intersect the New-Orleans road in Texas, now deemed the most feasible and advantageous routes for a great national highway, to connect and bind together the two great oceans of the world. From the great length of these roads, as also from the conformation of the country through which they will pass, other rail-roads will spring up, which will be tributary to, and not rival, having the advantage of connecting a whole system of railways between these great oceans with the commercial metropolises of the valley of the Mississippi—New-Orleans on the one hand, and Memphis on the other, by which the trade and travel of whole states beyond will find a channel to these great centres of business.

Louisiana cannot hesitate as to what she ought to do, now that Tennessee has come out so nobly in support of that great internal improvement cause, which even in its infancy, in connection with the ocean steamers, guarantees to the American people the commerce of the seas and the supremacy of the world.

Premising that long before the meridian sun of this generation shall shine upon us, over the fertile plains of Louisiana, Arkansas, Texas, and California, a great highway will spring into life, for the thronging emigrants of both worlds,—and for the abounding products of its soil a capacious outlet,—returning the tribute of a rich commerce to these states from which they had sprung, its magnitude in the fulness of its growth, beyond human conception, passing through a mild, salubrious latitude, which can never be obstructed by snows or ice, and other impediments incident to higher latitudes.

Arkansas looks with confidence to this Convention to devise ways and means to bring to the early consideration of Congress a proper application, emanating from, and concentrating the power and influence of the South-western states, and of all the other states of this Union, that can be enlisted in the cause, for a grant of the "*right of way*" throughout the whole extent of these projected roads, and suitable grants of land in aid of their construction, on a scale commensurate with the magnitude of the proposed work, from one extremity to the other. In view of these liberal grants of lands to be set apart mainly as a sort of sinking fund for the purchase of the iron rails and the equipment of these roads, it is deemed feasible to construct the whole work by individual enterprise, through the fostering aid of the respective states under different corporations, a system of improvement far more preferable and effective in new countries than could be obtained by the direct aid and influence of the Federal government, which too often, if not always, gives to public works a political aspect, if not in the end fatal to the enterprise itself; producing wrangling and contention irreconcilable, and otherwise by executive patronage exciting the just fears of every patriot.

I beg the indulgence of the Convention to be specially heard, for a moment, in this place, on behalf of the state of Arkansas and her people, for and in whose name I have the honor to address you; and to state, in this connection, an important matter, that I hope will not escape the particular attention of every one present, placing as it does the projected road from Memphis through Arkansas, to unite with the Texas and Louisiana roads, in a very important and truly commendable position in reference to its connections with neighboring states. Upon a careful examination of a map of the country, it will be found to be one of the main connecting links of that great system of "*main trunk lines*" of rail-road now traversing the United States. Crossing the Mississippi River at a point where it will connect with those immense thoroughfares which lead to all the important commercial centres of the West, and to the great marts of the East, on the Atlantic seaboard—finding at Portland, Maine, a connection with the extension of the projected Halifax and Quebec lines of railway, now under process of survey by the "*European and North American Rail-Road Company;*" traversing the provinces of New-Brunswick, Nova Scotia, and the Canadas, via Quebec, Montreal, to the Falls of Niagara, up along the northern shores of Lake Erie, to where it intersects the "*Great Western Railway of Canada,*" that brings you to Detroit, the completion of which is now deemed certain, under the guarantee of the British government and these North American provinces. Another striking feature in the Arkansas road, which must be kept in view, is, that it will, by its connection with the Memphis and Charleston road, intersect the New-Orleans and Jackson Rail-road, in its onward course through the state of Tennessee—spanning at one bound the North American states and the British provinces, connecting the two oceans, and the great northern inland seas; binding in "*bands of iron*" and locomotive attraction, all that new world of commerce, trade, and travel; concentrating and diffusing, with lightning speed, that vast and swelling stream of intelligence, and march of the human mind, now the wonder and admiration of the age.

I trust it will not be considered extravagant for me to say, before this body of patriots, congregated here on an occasion that will be chronicled in history, what is admitted on all sides, though not adhered to for any effective purpose, that as the laws of trade are inviolable, the country which, like the Mississippi valley, is possessed of the greatest number of materials necessary for manufactures, will be the ULTIMATE manufacturers; and the time is close at hand, when the world will scarcely believe that such a state of things could by any possibility have existed, as to have permitted raw materials to go to England from one continent, and food from another, for the production of goods to sell in a third. By this we arrive at a point which may well be considered as a main element in this view of the resources of that vast region of country west of the Mississippi, whence the growing manufactures of that valley must draw a majority of their supplies, and in which it must find an expansive market for their fabrics depending upon that great rail-road system, to extend from the Mississippi to the Pacific Ocean.

The American mind, fresh from the completion of canals and rail-roads, of gigantic proportions, in the older states, and from the acquisition of California, with her rich resources—what is there in this Pacific road that should make us pause, although we admit the enterprise to be a colossal one; and yet who will have the assurance to say that we have not the means and energy proportioned to this and the other great works, laid out for the American race upon this continent. How can we accomplish it? I answer, by bringing into active life the labor and the now dormant energies of our people; to grade the roads and make the superstructure; and by securing a just proportion of the public domain, to purchase the iron rails, and for the equipments of the road.

It is obviously true, that the immense amount of the public lands will, if not in a mass, be appropriated by piece-meal, to satisfy the numerous demands made upon the federal government, by different states, for various objects, until they are all gone; now amply sufficient, if promptly and judiciously made available, to construct and equip all the rail-roads that may be required in the Western and South-western States during the present century. In fact, such an application of them is the best, if not the only mode, of making them available to the people; and such a disposition of them would meet with favor from every quarter, and should engage the early attention of Congress.

The immense migration to, and rapid settlement of, our Pacific possessions, have hastened events, and brought them to a point where it becomes necessary to decide immediately on the adoption of some plan, for the construction of a more direct and rapid connection, than any now existing.

Again: of the progress and position of the Pacific States, the world, and its history, does not afford a parallel. The discovery of the rich mines has enticed and congregated there thousands of people, of all nations, kindred and tongues, reared and educated under various forms of government, many with unbridled passions, unaccustomed to our institutions and laws, hard to govern in their present position, which gives them the command of the commerce of the Pacific, with China, and with all Asia. Hence the more immediate the necessity of opening a great highway, facilitating trade, the interchange of commodities between the two oceans, and an immense population of consumers in the intermediate valley. This is not a new subject; it has been for a long time before the public, discussed and commented upon in every quarter; but the position at present assumed is different. We ask for these grants to be made directly to corporations, created and controlled within their proper sphere by state authority, involving no constitutional difficulties.

To illustrate: an eminent writer upon the subject of private corporations, remarks,—only a few years since "Professor Morse deemed the construction of an extensive electric telegraph impracticable, except by the general government, who repelled him, as it had repelled De Witt Clinton, when he supposed the Erie Canal could not be built without aid from the national treasury; and to these refusals we owe the numerous telegraphs which are pervading our country, and the numerous canals and rail-roads with which the states have enriched their respective sovereignties; improvements greatly more extensive than the general government could have accomplished, had it been ever so willing. The United States in their agencies seem naturally obdurate. In a degree proportioned to their unfitness, men in their aspirations naturally call upon some *Hercules*, instead of eliciting an energetic exercise of their own powers. But we evolve principles practically, long before we see them speculatively, or we should not persevere, as we do, in a reliance on the general government for what we term internal improvements; and which, except for such reliance, would readily be accomplished to every profitable extent, by our states individually, or their people: a sufficient reason why our states increased so rapidly in power, after their separation from Great Britain.

Pennsylvania and Michigan, which relied on state agency for the construction of rail-roads, became insolvent and unable to complete their undertakings; while the states of New-York and Massachusetts, who constructed theirs by private corporations, completed more rail-roads than the former states ever contemplated. Wise, therefore, is the policy which, by means of private incorporations, enables individuals to combine their resources, and thus to extend the sphere of personal efficiency, the great reservoir of all efficiency.

It is neither my province nor my pleasure to depreciate the claims of rival routes, for a road through Arkansas, that may be, in the estimation of others, entitled to a priority of consideration by this Convention. Yet, I trust to be excused for asserting, in terms not to be misunderstood, that I shall here conscientiously discharge what I conceive to be my duty to those I represent, to you, and to our common country, by again reiterating, and pressing it upon the deliberate judgment of the whole Convention, the pre-eminent claims which the route it is my pride and pleasure to advocate (but only in general terms) possesses, for the easy and cheap construction of a *main trunk road through the state*, over all other competing routes that may be advocated. I state this, from some personal knowledge of the country over which that road would pass, as well as from an investigation of the most material objections that have been heretofore raised against its real merits, as compared with other routes spoken of. It has the advantage of being central; and will be of far more general benefit to the present and future population of Arkansas, and to the country generally, than any other route indicated. Should it be thus appreciated by this enlightened body, and receive their recommendation, as one of the links to connect the road terminating at Memphis with the Louisiana road in Texas, in its projected course to the Pacific, it could not fail to meet the approbation of a very large majority of the people of this state.

I believe I hazard nothing in asserting, that in no other way can the South-western States succeed so effectually in laying a sure foundation for the construction of a judicious system of rail-roads, or that will have such beneficial effect upon the whole country, as by uniting all the means and ability of the respective states through which these roads may pass, upon the construction of the lines here indicated, until they are fully completed, and equipped for business, an undertaking fully equal to the ability of these states, estimating a large proportion of the "*road-bed*" to be made by the surplus labor in the country. A diversion from this recommendation might greatly retard, if not blight, for years, our prosperity; and I crave indulgence to press these humble sentiments upon your attention, and bespeak for them an attentive consideration, such as shall be commensurate with its importance.

It is, perhaps, known to most of you, that the name of Arkansas has become a by-word and reproach, upon which to heap every vile epithet that is degrading to a free and enlightened people. Why it is so, except from habit, I cannot say. Arkansas, not unlike most of the Western States of her age, has, perhaps by unwise legislation, placed herself and her people in the back-ground for awhile, and to some extent, and by that means, oppressed the energies of many of her best citizens; but the day is beginning to dawn, and a bright future is close at hand, when, by a change in our constitution and laws, we shall be relieved from our long-existing financial embarrassments, which have borne us down to such a degree, that our natural energies and immense resources cannot be made available for advancing either our manufacturing or internal improvement interests. Still, I am authorized to say, that we shall be able to survey, locate, and commence the work upon our portion of these proposed roads, as soon as the public policy of the country will authorize it, and the South-western States shall have decided upon and established a system, as a guide, if such should be their pleasure. It is with great reluctance that I state these things, or thus attempt to speak for the state in which I live, lest from incompetency, or a misapprehension of her real interests or policy, I might unconsciously err in my efforts to place her in the right position. Nor would I attempt to speak under any circumstances, except as at present advised there is no certainty that any of our distinguished citizens will be present from this portion of the state, to represent her in the Convention. No man, however intelligent he may be, can be fully aware of the facts that really exist in relation to the practical effects of internal improvements in a new country, unless he makes it a study; nor their means and their availability to build these roads, consisting, as they do, in a country like ours, of labor, teams, materials, provisions and money. The results to be obtained from their judicious application, expended, as they would be, upon the line of the work, would constitute it a self-creating fund, making every one stockholders, and wedding them, both in feeling and interest, to its success and security, repaying them back tenfold in the increased value given to their lands and movable property of every kind; nor is it easy, in reference to a "*main trunk line*," of the extent and dimensions of the one under consideration, to form any correct estimate of the local traffic and travel that will concentrate upon it; nor of the lateral business that would afford it support; nor of the through business which would pass over it, in consideration of its safety, certainty, economy and saving of time; nor any approachable estimate of the increased value it would give to land, and every other species of property, not only along the line of the road, but, both far and wide; and also the impetus it would give to all the agricultural, commercial, manufacturing, mechanical, and other industrial pursuits.

It would be both unwise and impolitic for the states through which these projected roads are to pass, to apply at this time for the direct aid of the general government in their construction, a useless application, inasmuch as the public policy of the country has settled down in opposition to it.

A commencement and vigorous prosecution of the proposed works, would soon elevate our standard, as an industrious, self-relying people, and place us in good credit. And now that the English rail-roads are all built, and large amounts of surplus capital accumulating there, to which we may add, the diminished character in the value of their annuities as a paying investment, would soon bring into the field of operation, as competitors, a new race of contractors, with abundant capital, who, doubtless, would be more than willing to construct at least a moiety of our roads, provided they were secured by a lien upon them, properly sanctioned by our respective state authorities. It is, perhaps, known to you that the money to build the "*European and North American Rail-Road*," to an amount far greater than we would require, was obtained for but a mere fraction of interest above three per cent. But before this can be successfully attempted, it is absolutely necessary that we should begin the work ourselves, and carry it forward until the results upon these projected roads are so far extended, and the resources of the country sufficiently developed, to be an earnest, of both our intention and ability, to perform whatever we promise, without relying on contingencies to happen.

It must be apparent to every one present on this occasion, that the completion of such gigantic undertakings is a work of time, requiring the fortitude, energy, and iron will of American enterprise. Yet procrastination will be fatal to us, evincing to the world that we are unequal to the task of constructing a road through a level country, at no expense of the right of way, presenting no formidable obstacles in comparison to similar works in the Eastern States. If we hesitate now, it will be, in its effect upon the public mind, nothing less than an implied surrender of all the benefits to this generation of all such anticipated improvements, and a tacit assignment of all of our natural rights to other rival avenues of trade, that will start into life, grow with our growth, and gain fresh vigor from the impotency of our energies.

The construction of rail-roads is no longer a debatable question of policy; but the state that would preserve her prosperity, and secure her future progress in a comparative ratio with her sister states, must embark in similar enterprises, from necessity. The great strides of other states towards annihilating distance, by this means, should stimulate us to push forward our rail-road projects with renewed energy, and, as far as possible, bring to its aid the influence of every citizen in the South-western States.

The commercial intercourse between this country and Europe has hitherto been confined to New-York and other Northern cities, enriching them at our expense, until from affluence the South has reduced herself to a state of dependence. How this evil is to be remedied I leave, as before stated, to others more competent to exemplify, whilst I turn my attention to another matter, equally important in its particular relation to Southern advancement, which no one can fail to see at a glance in its most alarming and extended aspect; I mean the immense emigration now pouring in upon our Atlantic seaboard, which in its progress threatens to depopulate portions of Europe, and therefore becomes an essential element in the progress of population and wealth of the country. The South derives little or no benefit from such accessions, although their numbers, both in wealth and respectability, are increasing every year. When the line of ocean steamers, now building in the Eastern ports, shall have been completed, they will be far beyond any present estimate. These emigrants mostly land in the city of New-York and neighboring towns, from whence they readily find their way into the region of the far West, at trifling expense, through regularly organized emigrating societies, ever ready to change them from on shipboard to the railway lines, in an hour after their arrival, without any charge of cartage, and landing them in Chicago, for example, at a cost of only *seven dollars*, or at any other point in the same ratio, thus placing them in a few days in the centre of the fertile regions of the West, with all their money and effects, with health unimpaired. The few that find their way South, land on the levee, in New-Orleans, uncared for—take a deck passage on some steamboat bound up the Mississippi, to seek a home—and die in numbers of some prevailing disease of the country, or are blown up, or find a watery grave from the sinking of a badly-managed boat. The remedy for all this must be obvious to the most common understanding. And we cannot reasonably expect to secure any great accessions of that description of population, without making an adequate provision to invite them to our shores, in a corresponding ratio with other commercial points.

The last record of 250,000 emigrants, arriving in the Eastern ports, had about their persons in money, $20,000,000; and the previous register of 210,000, 10 millions of dollars. This may enable you to form some idea of the great value we ought to attach to the acquisition of a proportion of that vast and swelling tide of population, pressing forward to find a home in America.

Another advantage, which should not escape your notice, is, that the cost of rail-roads in the South-western States is, from the nature of the ground, less than in the Eastern States, by full one-half—when we take into the calculation that the "*right of way*" is a gratuity. In this view of it, who can fail, in common with the public, to see the cheapness and great natural advantages these projected roads will possess over any others, and the vast results to be produced by their successful accomplishment. By means of them the home trade, and the value of that vast domain through which they will pass, will be enhanced. Upon the immense line, settlers of all nations will press, with ceaseless vigor, the moment the preliminary surveys are made, and soon a thriving population will fill every plain and valley; cities, towns, and villages, will spring up, as if by magic, adding strength and value to the work as it progresses, developing the energies of the whole population within its influence. The labor now in the country, with the increase that these new works will invite and bring to us, will be ample for all reasonable purposes, under judicious management, to build these roads.

The idea of filling up a new country with the hardy pioneers, ever pressing westward for a home, and settling them, free of cost, upon lands far in the interior, and away from any facilities affording an easy market for their products, is too absurd for any one to propose, even if the land were free of cost. If so remotely situated that the labor bestowed upon it can produce no results beyond a bare subsistence, a farm is not worth the labor bestowed upon it; and the demagogue who proffers it, but insults the intelligence of the settler.

If, however, by appropriating a portion of the public domain, the remainder can be made available to the settler, a real homestead will have been created for him that will be a rich inheritance. Manufactures, and all branches of industry, will spring up on the line of these roads, affording markets for the produce of the districts commanded by its lateral works. The experience of the great rail-roads now in operation in the older states, fully exemplify what we wish to arrive at—that if the effect, in a country already densely settled by a manufacturing population, is so astonishing, as every one present knows it to be, how much more effective will the same influence be in such a country as this, where all its natural resources remain undeveloped.

Your ob't serv't,

Roswell Beebe.

Little Rock, Ark.

THOUGHTS ON THE PURPOSES OF THE CONVENTION.

I congratulate you and the whole country on the assemblage of your honorable body. I regard it as the commencement of a series of measures destined to exert a most salutary influence on our future destiny. The place selected is the proper one in all respects, and the time eminently propitious. New-Orleans has so many natural advantages, that she must always be exempt from much of the suspicion of undue selfishness, to which many other places might be exposed. With or without rail-roads, her majestic river and its mighty tributaries must always supply her with all the elements of boundless wealth and prosperity. What if other cities should occasionally penetrate a few interior valleys, and here and there make a few encroachments on her former commerce, the impression would be too slightly felt to impede her onward progress. The insignificant loss would be more than compensated by the increased stimulus which a general rail-road system would impart to the productive energies of the country.

But the place is not more favorable than the time is auspicious. The southern and western mind is now ripe, thoroughly ripe on all the subjects which I suppose will occupy your attention. These, I expect, will be chiefly, the devising of a proper rail-road system for the South and West; the introduction and encouragement of a more extensive system of manufacturing into the same region, and the encouragement of importations into our southern cities, and a direct trade between them and foreign countries. On all these subjects, I repeat, the public mind is thoroughly ripe for decided action.

As to rail-roads, who that ever made one distant journey by water, that did not prefer dry land for the next? With or without cause for it, the universal passion of the age has become, to desert the water and to fly to the land—not only to fly *to* it, but to fly *on* it, at the rate of 40 or 60 miles to the hour. Even here in Tennessee, we who have been heretofore a patient and slow-moving people, (except in war times,) have been so quickened up that nothing but the iron horse and the telegraph will now do us. We are giving a hearty welcome to every rail-road that approaches our borders—our legislature is now granting charters to the Louisville and Cincinnati roads to Nashville, and from that point to the Great Bend of Tennessee, in a suitable direction to meet with the New-Orleans and Mobile roads, when extended to that river. We are, in fact, reaching out our arms in every direction, proffering an affectionate embrace to all. To none a more fraternal one than to our sister cities of the South—Mobile and New-Orleans. Let them come by their own ways to the Tennessee River, a little above or below where our state-line crosses it, and where all obstructions to navigation will be avoided, and we will shake hands across the stream with a cordiality that shall know no discrimination. But our legislature is not content with simply granting *charters*, and then leaving the projects to linger and perish, with no other than a mere statutory existence; she is proposing for all of our great (or as the technical word now is) our tidal lines, to advance to the companies her bonds at the rate of $7,000 or $8,000 per mile, for the purchase of iron rails, locomotives, and other fixtures of the roads. There is every probability that such liberal provisions will be made for them at the present session of that body. We are, therefore, profoundly in earnest: and Tennessee tenders to Alabama, Louisiana, and Mississippi, a generous rivalry as to who shall first reach the proposed point on the Tennessee River with the roads in question. I need not take time to point out the great advantages of such a line of road both to Mobile and New-Orleans. The Vicksburgh, Jackson, Brandon, and Montgomery road will be the first tributary. In northern Mississippi, I suppose not far from Jacinto, the Memphis and Charleston road would cross, which would be the second; at Nashville. the Chattanooga will be the third, swollen as it will be, by the junction at the latter place of the Charleston and Savannah, and of the Virginia and East Tennessee roads. A connection between New-Orleans and Mobile with the Ohio at Louisville and Cincinnati, with such tributaries as these, must be of the highest importance to the cities at their respective termini, and to the whole region of country through which the road would pass.

But it is obvious that a connection with Louisville and Cincinnati, however important, is not the only purpose of these two southern cities. They see with what steadiness of purpose South Carolina and Georgia are pushing forward their road, to some point on the Mississippi, at or near the mouth of the Ohio. They cannot be insensible to the consequences. If Charleston is determined to stand at the mouth of the Ohio, bidding for the amazing commerce of the North-west, New-Orleans and Mobile will be compelled to stand there also, her rivals and competitors for the noble prize. I speak of competition and rivalry, of course, in no sense unworthy of those enlightened cities. That they may be there in good time to secure their just and fair proportion of advantages, I respectfully beg leave to make a few suggestions to both of them.

It is evidently impossible to make the important roads contemplated by them, and which it is perhaps essential to each, should be made without a heavy draft on the resources of both cities, and on those of the towns and people along the respective routes. Is it not, therefore, the part of wisdom and of a just economy in both, to avoid the construction of parallel and contiguous lines, such as would be two roads from any point of approximation in northern Missisippi to the mouth of the Ohio. To avoid doing so, I would suggest that the New-Orleans road from Jackson, Mississippi, to the Great Bend of the Tennessee, should be so located as to pass the point where the Mobile road to the mouth of the Ohio crosses the Memphis and Charleston road by Tuscumbia. This point, I believe, is near Jacinto, in Mississippi. Now, from *that point* to the Tennessee River, in order to form a connection with the Louisville and Cincinnati road by Nashville, and from the same point north to the mouth of the Ohio, a road might and ought to be constructed by the *united funds* of both cities, or of the companies representing them, securing by proper covenants equal rights and benefits of every sort to both. More especially do I consider this to be important in relation to the road running north to the mouth of the Ohio. The distance will not fall much short of 175 miles, and the cost of its construction not much less than three millions of dollars. Half that amount is worth saving, and its division would lighten the burden on both, as well as on the intermediate towns and people who might be called on to contribute to its construction. The suggestion is made with a full persuasion that the road *can* be made by either, but with the strong conviction that a proper sense of economy and an enlightened comity of feeling, would evidently be consulted by a joint contribution to it.

I drop the subject of rail-roads, in order to suggest another on which the South and West are looking for your action with the highest interest: I mean the encouragement of manufactories—manufactories generally, but more especially of our great southern staple. You will never adjourn, I hope, without making the strongest appeals to our capitalists, and especially our planters, to engage in them. The latter can build the houses necessary with their own hands. Two or three, or half a dozen can unite in one establishment. They can select from their own stock of slaves the most active and intelligent ones for operatives, without the necessary advances in money to white laborers. The cost of machinery, and the expense of one or two others of practical experience to superintend the rest, will be nearly the only outlay of actual capital for the business. I earnestly desire to see one-fourth of southern slave labor diverted from the *production* to the *manufacture* of cotton. One-fourth of such labor abstracted, would give a steadiness and elevation of prices to the raw material, which would better justify its cultivation.

I have no time to elaborate this view of the subject; I but hint at it, and indulge the hope that it will be placed in the hands of one of your ablest committees.

In relation to the encouragement of importations into our southern cities, and of direct trade between them and foreign countries, I do not know that I can suggest anything valuable. When the South shall have completed a well digested system of internal improvements, connecting the interior with our southern ports, importations will come of themselves. Ability to furnish *assorted cargoes* will soon attract a direct trade to the full amount of the ability of our southern cities to accommodate it. This theme, also, opens too wide a field either for my present time or for the patience of your honorable body.

I therefore close this communication, with the most profound respect and confident expectation, that your deliberations will result in the lasting benefit of our common country.

Very respectfully,

Nashville, Tenn. AARON V. BROWN.

Your esteemed favor of 3d instant, directed to Graniteville, is before me, with an invitation to deliver an essay before the Rail-road Convention to assemble in New-Orleans on the first Monday in January next, on the subject of the extension of Southern and Western manufactures, and the influence which it will exert on the system of internal communication, which it is the object of the Convention to project.

I acknowledge my obligation to yourself and the several members of the committee for the honor which you have conferred upon me, and regret that your letter reached me too late to afford time, in the midst of a multitude of other engagements, to do justice to a subject of such vast magnitude. It covers a boundless and prolific field for speculation as well as practical observation; and I assure you, it is with unfeigned regret that circumstances beyond my control compels me to decline the honorable office of addressing the Convention on the subject.

The advancement of the mechanic arts, and diversifying southern industry, is a subject in which I have been engaged for years past. In order to keep pace with the advances making everywhere in this utilitarian age, we must give up our notions of exclusive agriculture in the planting states, and turn more of our attention to those branches of industry, which will so diversify occupation, as to give a field for the development of the powers of every mind. It will tend to vivify the intellect of the masses, giving such vent to human ingenuity as will bring out the whole physical and productive force of our country, and give life and energy to the vast operations you have before you, and a sure basis for the future profit and usefulness of the rail-roads you contemplate building.

Without such a change in public sentiment as will direct capital into such channels, our soil will be worn out, and many of our now productive fields will be suffered to grow up in sedge-grass and old field pines, as is now the case in many portions of the old Atlantic southern states. Our commercial cities will remain stationary, while those of other countries will rapidly advance in wealth and population. Our accumulated mercantile capital will continue to leave us, in order to find more profitable sources of investment, instead of seeking employment in our own country by building manufactories, rearing villages, making rail-roads, and other improved means of intercommunication. All such investments made in a country act back on the cities that accumulate and furnish the capital. Thus, we may have action and reaction going on, giving strength to the sinews of our country, population and wealth to our cities, and terminate in that enviable state of things which Boston enterprise and Boston capital has produced in Massachusetts. The motto of the South should be, the Plow, the Anvil, and the Loom.

It is a prevalent but mistaken notion, that the Caucasian race of the South have not as much mental or physical energy to prompt industry as the same class of individuals at the North. It is true, that they are not fitted by nature to stand our broiling sun of the South, or even to exist in the pestilential swamps of the seaboard, where the African enjoys health, and seems to be at home.

The white man will never be an efficient field-laborer in our southern states; but when the now unemployed or unproductive white people of our country are looked on in a proper light by our great capitalists, they shall soon be brought to employ themselves in the arts which follow and cluster around the anvil and the loom. God speed the change which shall produce such a revolution as will fill every department of our commerce, manufactures, &c., with our own people! In such a state of things, with the aid of the African race to drain our swamps and speed the plow, we may become the thriftiest people on earth.

With great respect,

Charleston, S. C. WM. GREGG.

RALEIGH, *Dec. 5th*, 1851.

GENTLEMEN—

I very much regret that it is not in my power to accept your invitation to attend the Rail-Road Convention, which is to be held in New-Orleans on the first Monday in January. I regret this the more, as I have long had a desire to visit the valley of the Mississippi and its great commercial emporium, where you purpose to have your meeting.

Although not in my power to be with you, I shall participate with the most lively feelings of interest in your proceedings. Such a Convention of delegates from *the Southern and Western states*, cannot fail to elicit information of the deepest importance to the whole country. The immense amount of capital invested in rail-road improvements, as well in England as in the United States, places the system beyond all question as to its importance and utility; and to the energy, commercial knowledge, and business habits of practical men, the public are indebted for the development and adaptation of the system to the wants of every community. The Convention which you propose to assemble cannot fail to produce the most favorable results, as you bring together men of intelligence, capable of imparting the best modes of management, as collected from the practice of American and foreign railways; men qualified to give correct statements of what has been done, what works are in progress, what plans, both as to materiel, iron and construction, are most approved; thus collecting a fund of information of the highest practical importance to every section of the country. These considerations of themselves would fully justify the meeting of the Convention; but the great point is, in seeing New-Orleans, the favored depot of the immense products of the mighty West, taking a lead in the great work. Other markets less favored may, by their energy and enterprise, turn the system to their advantage; but these must serve as feeders, in order to collect and concentrate the whole to that point which has been designated by the God of nature and the past experience of man.

The Convention, I trust, will not confine its labors to the advancement of the rail-road system alone, but extend its views to our foreign trade and commerce. With the great staple of cotton at their command, most surely, Charleston and New-Orleans should be to the South and West what Boston and New-York are to the East and North, Philadelphia and Baltimore to the middle states. I should gladly present my views on this interesting subject, but that I know others will be in attendance on the Convention better qualified than myself, with the opportunity of freely conferring with each other, and of thus doing justice to the question.

I am happy to inform you, that the spirit of improvement has been awakened in my own state, and that we now have in construction two great connecting rail-road links; the one running through the eastern section of the state, via Wilmington to the Charleston road; the other via Raleigh, Columbia, and on south, which will secure not only the travel from north to south, but serve for transporting the produce of the interior of our state to their proper home markets.

Allow me to renew my regrets that professional engagements will deny me the pleasure of being with you, and to express my sanguine anticipations that the most happy results will follow the labors of the Convention.

I am, gentlemen, with high respect, your obedient servant,

R. M. SAUNDERS.

Messrs. BURKE, CROSSMAN, etc.

THE JACKSON RAIL-ROAD.

To the Stockholders of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Northern Rail-Road:

GENTLEMEN—The Permanent Committee of Ways and Means, appointed in April last by the Convention of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Northern Rail-Road, respectfully submit the following report of their proceedings:

The committee, immediately after their appointment, proceeded to the discharge of the duties imposed on them, in accordance with resolutions adopted by the Convention, viz.: To devise the means necessary for the construction of a rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, in the state of Mississippi; and, for that purpose, to organize a rail-road company under the general incorporation law of Louisiana.

An examination of the act of March 16, 1844, entitled, "An Act for the organization of Corporations in this State," convinced the committee that it was impossible to form a rail-road company under its provisions. This fact is clearly established in the report of a sub-committee appointed to investigate the subject, a brief recapitulation of which is here given, although the whole report has already been submitted to the public through the press. The sub-committee say:

"That after the most earnest efforts, they have been unable to devise any means for forming an organization under the present legislation of the state, that will afford the slightest prospect of success in obtaining subscriptions; and that the difficulties which embarrass undertakings of this nature, render any scheme of internal improvement utterly hopeless, until some modification of the incorporation law shall have been made. The whole spirit of this law reveals the state of public feeling at the time of its passage. It is composed of twenty-six sections, filled with the most minute provisions relative to formalities to be observed, and restrictions to be imposed, on the companies to be formed under its enactments. So far as regards such companies as are intended to forward works similar to that which we propose to undertake, the title of the law would form a better index to its provisions, if the act had been declared to be intended 'to prohibit the organization of corporations in this state.'"

The sub-committee then refer especially to some of the sections alluded to in the preceding remarks, and show that subscription books can only be opened in one place, thereby precluding the obtaining of subscriptions by lists, to be carried round to the inhabitants of parishes where the line of the road is to pass; that the act of incorporation must be executed before a notary, and a copy of the same be deposited in one of the district courts, with a petition for its homologation; that thirty days' previous notice of the application to the district court shall be published, when any individual in the state may make any opposition, in all probability thereby delaying the action of the company from one to two years; that no rail-road company shall have the right of expropriating property without the express authority of the legislature previously obtained, nor of entering into the limits of any city or incorporated town without the sanction of the authorities, so that if a single proprietor on the line refuses a passage, although offered the full value of his land, or a municipal corporation refuses an entrance into its limits, the work must be stopped; that twenty per cent. must be paid in cash by each subscriber at the time of subscription; that the municipal authorities of the parishes, cities or towns, where such corporations exist, shall have the right to fix the rates of toll or fees; and that the agreement for the corporation, when made, shall not be construed or interpreted as a contract with the state; but that the legislature shall have, at all times, the power to alter and amend the law, and apply the amendment to pre-existing corporations.

The sub-committee further say:

"That any individual in the state would invest his capital, under such conditions, is scarcely to be expected; that an adequate subscription for our purposes can be obtained, is utterly impossible.

"Your committee, therefore, abandoning any attempt to adapt our project to the provisions of the law, and confident that the spirit now awakened amongst our people will lead to its repeal at the next session of the legislature, respectfully recommend as follows:

"1. That an act of incorporation be framed in accordance with the best precedents in our sister states, and with the previous legislation of our own.

"2. That lists be circulated for subscriptions to such a charter, with an agreement that the subscriptions are only to be binding when the sanction of the legislature shall have been obtained; but that, in the meantime, the subscribers agree to advance five per cent. on each share, to be employed in the necessary preliminary expenses of survey, location, &c.

"3. That a memorial be presented to the legislature, praying for the enactment of a corporation law, on an entirely different basis from that now in force, and providing for the facile combination of the capital and labor of the citizens of the state, who are willing to embark in enterprises of public improvement or utility."

In accordance with the suggestions of the sub-committee, an act of incorporation was drawn up, providing for the formation of a company, to be called "The New-Orleans, Jackson and Northern Rail-Road Company," the object and purpose of which was declared to be the construction of a rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss., on such a scale as to serve for a main trunk of a continuous line of communication between New-Orleans and the Northern and Western portions of the confederacy. The capital of the company was fixed at two millions of dollars, divided into shares of twenty-five dollars each, with the right on the part of the stockholders of increasing the capital. if found necessary, provided such increase were sanctioned by a vote of two-thirds of the stock represented, at a meeting of stockholders held for that purpose. It is not deemed necessary here to repeat all the provisions of the charter, as it has been printed and extensively circulated, both in the public papers and in pamphlet form. The proposed charter was accompanied by an agreement, which has been signed by all who have subscribed for stock. This agreement provides that the subscriptions shall become binding, only in case the legislature of the state shall, at its next session, make such change in the laws as shall render the proposed act of incorporation legal and valid; and shall empower the several municipalities, and the cities and parishes on the line of the road, if the voluntary subscriptions prove insufficient, to impose a tax on real estate for its construction, which tax shall be sanctioned by a majority of the voters of the places taxed, and shall be reimbursable to the tax-payers in stock of the company. It further provides for the payment, in advance, of the first instalment of five per cent. on the amount of subscriptions, to be expended solely for the necessary preliminary expenses in the location, &c., the road, plans, printing, &c.

It appoints the Permanent Committee of Ways and Means a Provisional Board of Directors; to act in obtaining the organization of the company, employing proper engineers for surveys, reports, plans, &c., and obtaining all the requisite information on which to base the final action of the company to be formed under the charter; and it gives to said Provisional Board of Directors the sole power of expending the money advanced.

Books of subscription were opened in May last, and within thirty days about $400,000 of the stock was taken. The following is a statement of the receipts and expenditures to date:

Amount collected on account of first instalment		$11,959 00
Paid to sundry papers for printing, &c.	$1,152 25	
Paid for books and stationery	47 00	
Paid Corps of Engineers, surveying party, &c.	7,500 00	
Paid commissions for collecting	300 00	8,999 25
Balance on hand		$2,959 75

Early in the summer of 1851, the committee prepared and published an address to the people of Louisiana, the object of which was—

To develop and explain the principles on which it was proposed to organize the New-Orleans, Jackson and Northern Rail-Road Company.

To show that, while the whole valley of the Mississippi, the natural tributary of New-Orleans, has been rapidly increasing in wealth and population, the commerce of the city has been gradually dwindling away; and that if she would regain the trade she has lost, and open new sources of opulence and power, it will be necessary to modify the laws of the state, in such a manner as to remove the restrictions and burthens now imposed on capital and enterprise; to reform our municipal affairs by the establishment of an economical and efficient government for the city, which shall restore her credit, now utterly prostrated: to encourage manufactures; to employ steamships, and establish a direct foreign commerce with countries requiring the staple productions of the great valley; and, more important than all, to make liberal appropriations for rail-roads leading from New-Orleans, and connecting with the vast system of rail-roads now projected and under construction in the neighboring states; to establish the fact that the legislature has constitutional authority to grant to all municipal corporations power to tax the property within their limits for the construction of works of internal improvement; in proof of which, the decisions of the highest courts of law in Kentucky and Tennessee on the side of its equity and constitutionality are cited, as well as the examples of such taxation in Virginia, Tennessee, Kentucky, Alabama, Connecticut and elsewhere; to excite a spirit of enterprise in the people of this state, and stimulate them to action, by examples of the uniform and unfailing increase in wealth, commerce and population, of every portion of the country, without exception, where rail-roads have been established.

The committee have reason to believe, that the publication of the address to the people of the state has been attended with beneficial results. It has had the effect of removing the prejudices of some, and dispelling the ignorance of others; while a feeling of emulation has been awakened in the great body of our fellow-citizens, by examples of the sure and speedy reward which in other states has ever followed well-directed enterprise.

A sub-committee, called the Committee on Surveys, was appointed in May, for the purpose of superintending and directing the operations of a corps of engineers which took the field in June, and was actively employed until the 23d ult. The following report was submitted by said committee at the last meeting of the Board:

The Committee on Surveys have the honor to report to the Board of Directors of the New-Orleans, Jackson and Northern Rail-road Company, that, agreeably with instructions of the 15th of May, immediate measures were taken to organize a corps of topographical engineers, to survey carefully the several routes which had been suggested as most suitable for a rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, Miss.

The extensive surveys and very complete information obtained by the old New-Orleans and Nashville Rail-Road Company, rendered the duties of the committee comparatively easy. The location of that rail-road along the valley of the Tangepahoa, was taken as a base line, from which our operations were made.

A party, fully equipped for field operations, under the direction of Mr. Henry Waller, civil engineer, a gentleman of much experience and professional skill, left New-Orleans for the state line on the 12th of July, and commenced their surveys at the junction of McGee's Creek and the Bogue Chitto, about two and a half miles north of the state line. From this point, a line in a southwesterly direction was traced, connecting with the old Nashville line, which crossed Pass Manshack, and an extension, connecting also with the survey of Mr. Phelps around Lake Maurepas. These surveys were made to enable the Board of Directors to assure the stockholders and the public, both of Louisiana and Mississippi, that the idea of building a rail-road across the valley and intervening ridges of the Tangepahoa, Chappapela, Chefuncte and Bogue Chitto, to Pearl river, approaching Jackson by the valley of said river, was inexpedient when viewed either with reference to cost or mechanical efficiency.

The committee bog leave to state, that it is the unqualified opinion of their engineers, that the best line of rail-road from New-Orleans to Jackson, must be located west of the Tangepahoa, and approach the last-named city, after entering the State of Mississippi, between the Tangepahoa and Tickfaw, to the common summit of those streams and the Bogue Chitto; and thence, descending the western slope of the valley of Pearl river, to the city of Jackson. A copy of the lithographic map of Major Ranney, which is herewith presented, exhibits the line described.

Having carefully surveyed every probable route east of the Tangepahoa, our engineers were ordered westward, to examine the ridge between the Tangepahoa and the Tickfaw; also the valley of the Tickfaw. The result of these investigations leads us, without doubt, to the conclusion, that, after reaching the high lands on the north side of the lakes, the true route of the rail-road will be found, as formerly located, along the valley of the Tangepahoa. Whether the rail-road shall pass from New-Orleans to high land by the old Nashville location, between Lakes Pontchartrain and Maurepas, or whether a line shall be adopted around the head of Lake Maurepas, is still regarded by the committee as a doubtful question, to be decided after very mature reflection. The line between the lakes is seven miles and a half shorter than the line around Lake Maurepas; will require one draw-bridge, but passes over more swamp land, and does not afford the same amount of local accommodation. The line around Lake Maurepas is more exposed to the influence of crevasses; will require three draw-bridges; is on better ground; but increases the distance, as before stated, seven miles and a half. The committee, however, feel authorized to assure the Board of Directors, that no serious difficulties exist on either line. The bridges may be constructed on piles; and those portions of the road which pass over low swamps, may, in the first instance, be also constructed on piles and trestles, and afterwards filled up with sand and clay, to be transported on the rails, at a moderate cost, from the north shore of the lakes.

The Committee on Surveys have also procured from the General Land Office, a copy of the United States Land Surveys, embraced between, and including, ranges five and eleven, from the state line to the Mississippi River. The government plans have been reduced to a scale of one inch to a mile by an accurate instrument, and embodied in a map of convenient size, on which is distinctly shown every section and fractional section of land, whether vacant or occupied. The map also embraces the surveys which have been made for rail-roads, including profiles of several of the principal routes. Profiles and plans, on a working scale, of the surveys made by Mr. Waller, have been deposited by him with the chair.

man of the committee; also, books containing all his field-notes. The committee take great pleasure in acknowledging the skill and fidelity with which Mr. Waller, and the gentlemen under his command, have discharged their duties. During the summer months, much sickness prevailed, both among officers and men; but the surveys were never suspended; and during the autumn months our operations were retarded by heavy rains, and the miserable condition of the swamps between the lakes and the banks of the Mississippi River.

The committee beg leave to acknowledge their obligations to Major Ranney for a large amount of valuable information connected with the duties assigned them He has placed at the disposal of the committee his finished maps of the location of the old Nashville Rail-Road to the state line, and also his maps and notes of experimental surveys reaching to the Tennessee River. These surveys were made under the personal direction of Major Ranney, in 1835, aided by a large and most efficient corps of assistants; and the committee find great satisfaction in stating to the Board, after a careful examination of these documents by their chairman, that a continuous line of rail-road from New-Orleans to the Tennessee River may be constructed with less labor, and with superior mechanical efficiency, than any other rail-road of the same length either in America or elsewhere. The line will be very direct; and where deflections are required, the curves may be made so gentle as to be regarded, for practical purposes, *straight lines;* the dividing ridge, or, more properly, the table-land, between the Gulf of Mexico and the Tennessee River, may be crossed by grades not exceeding, in any instance, sixteen feet to the mile; while three-fourths of the line will be level, or with grades within ten feet to the mile.

The superiority of this line will give to the trade of the Gulf of Mexico a vast advantage, in comparison with that which passes to the Atlantic over the high grades and strong curves necessarily encountered in winding a way from the western to the eastern side of the Alleghanies. An engine will transport more than double the freight from the Tennessee to New-Orleans or Mobile, and at a higher velocity, both for freight and passengers, than can be effected on any line of rail-road leading from the great valley to the Atlantic. The length of our road should be a subject of congratulation; for while, at its farthest point, we may compete successfully with any other commercial community, we build up and secure an immense intermediate trade peculiarly our own, and which none can ever divert from us.

The Committee on Surveys present to the Board of Directors this hasty report, embodying only general facts, in order that the Board may be made acquainted with the satisfactory results which have attended our investigations. Our surveyors only returned to the city on the 23d of December, after five months' absence on field duty. It will require a short time to bring up their office work, when the committee will present a report in detail. The Committee on Surveys cannot close this report, without acknowledging the satisfaction they experienced in the belief, that there is no difficulty of a serious character to be encountered in the construction of a great trunk rail-road from New-Orleans to the Tennessee River, where we will engraft on our stem the vast system of branches now being extended throughout the land.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. S. Campbell,
Chairman Committee on Surveys.

NEW-ORLEANS AND OPELOUSAS RAIL-ROAD.

ENGINEER'S REPORT.

To Messrs. M. M. Cohen, P. Simms, M. O. H. Norton, A. Lanfear, Maunsel White, J. W. Stanton, and B. H. Payne, Executive Committee on New-Orleans and Opelousas Rail-Road:

Gentlemen:—

Agreeably to your request and instructions, I have, with the assistance of Dr. W. S. Smith, surveyed that portion of the route of the contemplated New-Orleans and Opelousas Rail-road lying between Thibodaux and Berwick's Bay, and submit to you this, my report:

We first fixed on a point supposed to be the most eligible for crossing Bayou Lafourche, about a quarter of a mile above the corporate limits of the town of Thibodaux, which point is 15 chains and 70 links below the upper line of the plantation of Judge Guion.

From thence, for nearly 5 miles, we directed our course so as to follow a ridge of high land, known as the Pointe aux Chênes; at this distance the ridge turns so much westward as to be no longer available. We then turned the course a few degrees to the right hand, running through a cypress swamp two miles and a half across, striking the nearest point of high land on the Chucahoula ridge. This last mentioned swamp has a firm, hard clay bottom, with crevasse water-marks varying from three to four feet, and in a few sloughs, five feet water-mark. In the summer season this swamp becomes entirely dry, but now has on it water averaging one foot in depth. It is my opinion this swamp might be drained and kept most generally dry, by making a sufficiently large canal across the Chucahoula Ridge into Bayou Tiger, at a point where the distance would be but about one-half a mile in length.

Thence our line curves still more to the right hand, running along the Chucahoula Ridge about four miles, and enters a cypress swamp similar to the one last described. This swamp it crosses in a distance of ⅜th of a mile, striking a low and narrow ridge of land on the Bayou Tiger. Following this ridge, twice crossing the Bayou Tiger, at 13 miles from Lafourche, we arrived at a point on the right bank of Bayou Black, opposite the town of Tigerville.

It will be observed, also, by referring to the annexed sketch, that the line thus far crosses the Bayou Chucahoula four times; but this bayou, as well as the Bayou l'Ours, hereafter referred to, is very small and hardly observable, being what is generally termed a dry bayou.

Thence from opposite Tigerville, crossing a little to the left, the line runs along the high lands of Bayou Black two miles and a half, thence curving slightly to the right across the high lands of Bayou l'Ours one mile and a half, and enters a cypress and tupelo gum swamp, lying between the high lands of Bayou l'Ours and Bayou Bœuf.

This swamp has crevasse water-marks from three to four feet, and is less firm on the surface than those previously crossed on our line. At a depth of from six to twelve inches below the surface the ground is tolerably firm, being clayey, or what is here generally termed "terre gras." The line across this swamp is a little more than two miles in length, and that near the middle crosses a small draining bayou, the bottom of which is boggy.

Leaving this last mentioned swamp, and passing over cultivated land, at 19¾ miles from Lafourche, we arrived on the east bank of Bayou Bœuf. This bayou is 590 feet in width, banks 8 feet above tide water, and has a gentle current each way according to the tide; difference between ordinary high and low tides about 18 inches.

The soundings across Bayou Bœuf, on our line from the east bank, and taken at a moderately low tide, and at nearly equal horizontal distances, were as follows: 4 feet, 7½ feet, 12½ feet, 15 feet, 15 feet, 15 feet, 15 feet, 15 feet, 14 feet, 10 feet; the two extremes being about 50 feet from the banks.

Thence the line continues in the same direction over cultivated land a little more than half a mile, and enters a palmetto, ash, and cypress swamp, having on it but little surface water, with a very firm clayey bottom, and three feet crevasse water-mark. Crossing this swamp in a distance of about a half mile, the line enters upon the high lands of Bayou Bœuf again. Thence the line passes over said high land, mostly in cultivation, crossing Bayou Ramos at a distance from Lafourche of 22½ miles nearly, and reaches Berwick's Bay at a distance of 26¾ miles from Thibodaux, of which, say 5½ miles is through level overflowed swamp land, and the balance on high, level, and arable alluvial lands.

On this route there will be required several culverts across small bayous and drains, not involving heavy expenditure, and in addition five bridges, viz.: two across Bayou Tiger, which is 60 feet wide and 8 feet deep; one across the draining bayou in the swamp between Bayou l'Ours and Bayou Bœuf, which is 150 feet wide, and from 1 to 3 feet deep; one across Bayou Bœuf, the cross section of which is given above; and one across Bayou Ramos, which is 360 feet wide and 6 feet deep.

The country traversed on this route is all very nearly level, no portion being more than 15, nor less than 2 feet above tide water. Consequently no cuttings will be required; nor embankments, except in the swamp portions, sufficient to elevate the road above the highest crevasse water, and in other portions to secure a good foundation.

About one-half of the whole length of the route is on arable land, never overflowed, and the other half on land subject to immersion from 1 to 4 feet, in times of extreme high water of the Mississippi River, caused by breaks of the levee in the parishes of Point Coupee and West Baton Rouge. It might be supposed that an embankment, such as it is proposed to make, would operate as a dam, causing injury to the lands above it, as well as to the work itself. Such would not be the case, because the great area over which this crevasse water extends, and the level surface of the country in all directions, mostly a dense forest, gives to the overflow more the nature of a lake than that of freshet inundation. The culverts and bridges proposed on the route will be amply sufficient to allow the water to maintain nearly the same level on each side of the embankments.

I am in possession of data sufficient to estimate closely on every portion of the road between Thibodaux and Berwick's Bay, with the exception only of the bridges. The time allowed for making the survey was not sufficient to permit me to bore or sound the bottom of the bayous requiring bridges, and consequently only an opinion can be hazarded as to their description or cost.

Many engineers and others are of opinion, that the best manner of building railroads across overflowed swamps similar to those on this line, is on a construction of trestle work. I conceive that a more substantial and cheaper road-bed can be obtained by throwing up solid embankments of earth, and I have estimated accordingly, giving them such a height in the swamps as to be more than one foot above the highest crevasse water-marks, and on the other land so high as to secure at all times a solid foundation.

ESTIMATES.

Cutting trees and clearing roadway	$ 8.600
All embankments and grading	36,890
Lumber for mud sills and cross ties	32,020
Iron rails 63 lbs. per lineal yard, spikes and chairs	112,750
Labor on superstructure	32,100
Add 10 per cent. for contingent expenses and engineer's department	22,236
Total (equal to $9,144 per mile)	244,596

In addition to the above, there must be allowed for bridges, culverts, and depots, or warehouses, a sum which will add to the cost of the road probably not exceeding $1,200 per mile.

Your instructions required me to examine another route, commencing at the junction of Bayou Shaver and Bayou Bœuf, and following eastward on the south side of Bayou Bœuf, crossing the Bayou Chene; thence on south side of Bayou Black and crossing Bayou Crocodile; thence on or near the south boundaries of townships 16, ranges 14 and 15, to Bayou Black again; thence on the high lands of Bayou Black to a point in T. 17, R. 16, and then crossing over to Bayou Black again near the eastern junction of it and Bayou Chucahoula, and thence up on the high lands of Bayou Black to Thibodaux.

This last described route is certainly worthy of consideration and examination, by reason of its passage through a district of country which might afford much local business to the road; and, before any location of the road shall have been positively determined on, it ought to be surveyed in detail. Time was not allowed me to make this survey, as ordered in your instructions, and make out a report thereon in season to be submitted to you previous to the meeting of the Convention.

The distance between Thibodaux and Berwick's Bay, by the route last described, would be between 38 and 40 miles. From previous knowledge of some portion of it, and a recent examination, without instruments, of other portions, I am of opinion that the route, (with the exception of one particular locality of the extent of about 2 miles,) is entirely practicable, but would cost as much or more per mile as the more direct route, first described, and which is some 12 miles less in distance.

The question then would present itself, whether the additional local business of the longer route would justify the outlay of its additional first cost of construction, and also the additional charge on all the business of the road from and beyond Berwick's Bay, in all future time. On the longer route many more curves would be required than on the other, consequently less velocity in transit could be obtained with the same degree of safety. Those only who are practically acquainted with the working of rail-roads, will give due weight to this comparison.

Another thing to be considered, and one I think of much importance, is, that the longer route, terminating at Bayou Shaver, would forever preclude the proposition of crossing Berwick's Bay on a permanent bridge. Most persons, I am aware, are of opinion it is not practicable to do so. In order to satisfy myself, and others who may be inclined to investigate the matter, though not required by your instructions, I have taken a cross section of the bay, above the mouth of Bayou Bœuf, the result of which is shown on the annexed sketch. This proves clearly to my mind that if the bottom shall be found sufficiently firm, a permanent bridge can and certainly will be constructed across the bay, sooner or later, if the road shall ever have any considerable extent or business. At first, it may probably be advisable to cross Berwick's Bay by means of a floating-bridge; and if it be so decided, then the road should be located near the bay, as is represented on the annexed sketch by dotted lines, in order to avoid a mud-flat on the eastern shore of the bay.

Your instructions also required me to survey the route for a branch from the main road to the town of Houma, in the Parish of Terrebonne. I have projected on the sketch, in dotted lines, two different routes, either of which may be selected. The shortest follows over cultivated lands on Bayou Terrebonne, being in length about fifteen miles, and the other over cultivated lands, mostly on Bayou Black, having a length of about seventeen miles. The longest route would afford the greatest amount of local accommodation, and that being the main object of a branch, it would, most probably, be preferable.

The annexed sketch represents the leading features and results of the survey I have made of the route, and the adjacent country, but does not by any means represent the particular details obtained. You had expressed a desire to have something tangible to present to the Convention respecting the portion of the route confided to my examination, and I have complied with your request, although the limited time allowed prevents me from doing justice to either the work or myself. This report, and the accompanying sketch, may be relied on as far as they go; but had more time been allowed, both might and ought to have been given much more in detail. My field notes of the survey describe everything observed on the route necessary to a correct understanding in the premises, and shall be carefully preserved, subject to the uses of any company when organized.

I herewith, also, transfer to you a memorandum-book, in which the landed proprietors on the route have made a gratuitous donation of the right of way for the road. This document was willingly signed by every person to whom I presented it; being every person owning land on the route found at home, with only one exception.

To conclude: it results from my survey and investigation, that a route for that portion of the proposed New-Orleans and Opelousas Rail-Road, lying between Thibodaux and Berwick's Bay, has been found much more favorable, either as regards the nature of the ground intervening, or as regards its approach to an air line, than had been expected. There are no formidable obstacles to be overcome, and, in my opinion, the whole work may be constructed between said points, in the most durable and permanent manner, including bridges, culverts, station-houses, and depots, sufficient for the working on the road, at a cost not exceeding two hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars.

Augustus S. Phelps, *Civil Engineer.*

City of Lafayette, Dec. 29th, 1851.

NEW-ORLEANS AND OPELOUSAS RAIL-ROAD.

M. M. Cohen, Esq.,
Chairman of Executive Committee:

I have the honor to submit herewith, a Report of so much of the Survey of the Route of the Rail-road to Opelousas, as the limited time I have had would permit.

After having received the appointment as Chief of the Survey, I prepared to go to work at once. But, as not only the importance of the work, but the unknown nature of the country between Algiers and Thibodeauxville, required a reconnoissance before determining where the surveys should pass, I proceeded from Algiers to Thibodeauxville, in company with W. T. Thompson, Esq., Assistant Engineer.

Our route was up the river to the Barrataria Canal; down the canal through Lake Washa; up the Bayou des Allemands to Lake des Allemands; through the lake, down Bayou Bœuf, six miles, to its juncture with Bayou Cabanosa or Chegbee; up Bayou Chegbee to Laforests and Scuddy's plantation, and from thence to Thibodeauxville. This route crossed the direct line on the Bayou des Allemands, passing south of it on the eastern portion, and north of it on the western portion, leaving the other sides for a future reconnoissance. The result of our observations and inquiries was, that a line could be run in nearly a straight course between Algiers and Thibodeauxville. A party was organized by Mr. Thompson, and the survey commenced. He has been untiring in his efforts to get through; but such has been the numerous and various difficulties with which he has had to contend, and which will be detailed in his report, that he has not been able to finish the survey. Another party, under Mr. T. Gillespie, was afterwards formed, in order to expedite the work, and the survey commenced from Bayou des Allemands towards Thibodeauxville. During this time, I was engaged in a reconnoissance of Bayou Bœuf and the adjacent country, as far down as Lake Bœuf. I then proceeded with Mr. Gillespie to meet Mr. Thompson on the prairie, by way of Lake Washa, Lake Catawasha, and Lanoux's Canal. My object was to reconnoitre the prairie in its broadest part, which was effectually done, although with much personal inconvenience in getting through the prairie.

The line determined upon for the survey, was decided upon after the first reconnoissance, after mature deliberation, and for reasons which I shall briefly explain in the subsequent part of this report. Its direction is as follows: Commencing at Algiers, on the river bank, at Verret's Canal, where the levee is very small, and down the canal until opposite the commencement of the bend of the river; thence round the bend, at the distance of 4,000 feet, to the rail-road on Millaudon's plantation, on the ridge of the Bayou des Familles; thence, in a direction south, 78¾ degrees west to the Bayou des Allemands; thence due west, crossing Bayou Bœuf, between Bayous Tortue and Baton Pilon, to a point one mile from Bayou Lafourche, and opposite the point of starting of the second division; and thence to the Bayou Lafourche. The curves in this line are, beside that from Gretna to Millaudon's, the one joining this curve to the straight line to Bayou des Allemands, another at the Bayou, and another at Bayou Lafourche, and are so easy as hardly to be noticed. It will be seen, by referring to La Tourette's map, that a right line from Algiers to Thibodeauxville would be impossible, without crossing the river. By commencing at Verret's Canal, and passing as above described, it runs on the best route, without interfering seriously with any of the plantations.

The straight line from Millaudon's to Bayou des Allemands was chosen, as being the most favorable ground, and as running to the best point for crossing the Bayou—there being three islands there; from thence to Thibodeauxville is an experimental line, and subsequent surveys may possibly cause the route to pass a mile or two further north. The distances have not all yet been measured: the aggregate will not vary far from 51 miles. The nature of the country is, from Verret's canal to Millaudon's, cypress swamp, good foundation, with marks of crevasse water from nothing to three feet. From Millaudon's to Bayou des Allemands, except the first two miles, may be called the Great Prairie. It is twenty miles long, and is a low, marshy prairie, interspersed with narrow ridges, of a few inches high; and its northern border pierced by ridges not subject to overflow. A detailed survey of this country is required to connect these ridges, so as to determine whether a deflexion of the line would be advisable. The growth upon the prairie is reed grass, from ten to twelve feet high, and saw grass nearly as high—and both so luxuriant as to be very difficult to pass through. I was eight hours going six miles through it, with two stout men to beat it down before me; and the surveying parties cannot go over three or four miles per day. The ridges, on the border, are well wooded; and the cypress bottoms also extend some distance beyond the line, at several points. The soil is generally moist, but firm enough to bear up men at all times, and cattle in dry weather. The soundings gave me hard clay bottom at ten feet depth; this is a general feature of the prairie, in its whole extent—but there are some places which appear to be the beds of bayous choked up, which are very boggy, and impossible to cross on foot, but can be got over by crawling, or by light bridges. There are portions of the prairie called "Trembling or Floating Prairies," but not to any great extent on the line, or near where it should pass. They are principally in the south-west portion of the prairie, between Lakes Washa, Catawasha, and Little Lake des Allemands. They are, in my opinion, small ponds, which, being protected from the winds by the rank grass of the prairie, have been overgrown with weeds, until sufficiently firm to bear a man's weight. The thickness of the crust is about eighteen inches, and the water underneath about ten feet deep, with hard bottom, corresponding with the firm foundation of the prairie. The prairie is kept wet by the water from the lakes being driven upon it by high winds. Its luxuriant vegetation indicates its richness; and, if properly leveed and drained, it would be most valuable farming land. In its present condition, it is only a hunting ground for the planters and others.

The route of the line is intersected by numerous bayous, some of which run into the lakes, and others lose themselves in the prairie. Up to this time, the "prairie" has been a *terra incognita* to most people, and represented as impassable in every direction. Although I have been around, and across, and even *under it*, I am not prepared to give a full map of its surface, showing all the canals, bayous, ponds, floating prairies, and forests; and much more elaborate surveys should be made, to make such a map as is required. The best time for such a survey is in the winter or spring, when the reeds are burned off, and the mosquitoes are less abundant—and with men of iron nerves and constitution. The prairie, on the west side of Bayou des Allemands, is only four miles wide, and is of the same character as on the east side. Bayou des Allemands, at the points of crossing, is above three hundred feet wide, in the eastern shoot, with twenty feet deepest sounding; and two hundred and fifty feet in the western shoot, with fifteen feet deepest sounding. The island is one hundred and ninety-six feet wide—firm land, without timber. The current is affected by the winds, which cause a rise or fall of about two feet. From Bayou des Allemands to Bayou Bœuf, is cypress swamp, on each bayou, with the prairie between. From Bayou Bœuf west, is four miles of cypress, gum, ash, and maple swamp, with good bottom; thence to Bayou Lafourche, high forest land, with occasional bayous. Bayou Bœuf is about one hundred and fifty feet wide, with a depth of seven to ten feet. Its current is gentle, but constantly towards Lake des Allemands. The waters of Lake Bœuf pass into this bayou by a canal, which imperfectly drains it. Bayou Lafourche, at Thibodeauxville, is 230 feet wide at surface of levee, and twenty-six feet deep.

Throughout the route, I found marks of crevasse water, in some places over four feet, and over five in some bayous in the cypress swamps. It is the mark of the Fortier crevasse, and extends to the high lands of the Lafourche. *There*, the Cantrelle crevasse came up to the clearings of the plantations. It becomes, therefore, an important question as to the nature of the railway; and, after careful inquiries and examinations, I have come to the conclusion that an embankment cannot be considered, because, not only that it would block up the waters of a crevasse on to the river plantations, but that it could not stand. I have particularly examined the banks of the Barrataria and of Lanaux's canals, with a view to this subject. They are now very near the level of the prairie, although built about six feet high. The earth is melted away, or sinks down by its weight; and it is further destroyed by water rats, otters, and alligators, which abound; so that unless these causes can be destroyed, by complete drainage, no levee can be built which would endure long, as required for a rail-road. The foundation must, therefore, be a frame work of ron, or wood, six feet above the general level of the route.

Iron is too expensive for the present, and must therefore be replaced by cypress, which, if properly chosen from the low lands, will last long.

The expense of constructing this portion of the road will be much heavier than farther west; and must be estimated, at least, $15,000 a mile. This estimate would have to be made at the same rate to go up the river, as the nature of the country between the points of the river is the same as a portion of the straight line—namely, cypress swamp and prairie; and the distance between the points, in the aggregate, would be nearly, or quite equal to the straight line route. I assume, as a matter of course, that a straight line is the line to be chosen, if practicable. And I have not varied from it, except for good reasons.

Time has not been sufficient to make such a detailed survey as the magnitude of the work requires; but when it is considered, that since the 2d of December, there has been at least 25 miles measured out of 50, on which the line runs; and, considering the difficulties of supplying the surveying parties with provisions, I hope that the committee will see that the work has been pushed. Out of 27 days, I have been 20 days actively engaged in the field, and at all times engaged in the business of the survey. Mr. Thompson has not lost a day since the 2d of December, except by circumstances unavoidable; and he is still in the field. I beg leave to recommend him and Mr. Gillespie to your favorable notice, for perseverance and energy.

I have been brief in this report, as I only arrived in the city this evening; and, of course, cannot be expected to make a full report, or prepare a map; but, if desired, I will make them at a later period.

To fully satisfy the mind of the public, several routes ought to be explored. For instance, one around the head of Lake des Allemands, which would be seven or eight miles longer than the straight line. Another route up the river, to a ridge about twenty miles above the city; and along this ridge to the point on the Bayou des Allemands, where the straight line crosses. This will avoid much of the prairie, but lengthens the road about four miles. And another along the ridge of the Bayou des Familles, the shores of Lake Washa, and along the Barrataria Canal, to the eastern ridge of Lafourche, which would also be longer, but would facilitate more country.

I deem it proper to remark, that as the Convention decided that a rail-road should be built from Algiers to Opelousas, and my instructions were to run a portion of this line, I have not referred to a plan of a road to end on the river above New-Orleans, or to cross over to meet the Jackson Rail-road, but would merely suggest that the expense and delay of such a road would be greater than by a direct route to Algiers. The Mississippi is too uncertain in its action on its banks, and its rise and fall too great, to permit us to think of any construction to pass a rail-road across it, or re-ship freight short of New-Orleans. Travelers from or to the West, would also prefer to make but one crossing, or change of conveyance. The road must be looked at on a grand scale as the great route to the "Great West;" and, if possible, must be kept in that direction, leaving the neighborhoods to join it by plank roads, or branch rail-roads.

For this occasion, I beg leave merely to state that, in my opinion, (founded upon personal examination, and from information derived from every source; planters, hunters, fishermen, travelers, and which all verify my own observation,) a rail-road, elevated above crevasse water, can be built from Algiers to Thibodeauxville, in nearly a direct line, for about $15,000 a mile; or, in round numbers, for the whole distance of fifty-one miles, for $800,000; and I congratulate you, sir, on the favorable result of this important survey.

Your obedient servant,

A. G. Blanchard,
Chief of Survey.

NEW-ORLEANS AND OPELOUSAS RAIL-ROAD.

At a meeting of the Executive Committee of the above road, held at the office, No. 22 Exchange Place, on Monday evening, December 22, 1851, Col. R. H. Payne submitted a copy of his address to Governor Bell, and the Legislature of Texas, containing the substance of two speeches delivered by him in the hall of their House of Representatives, and reported that he had received from the authorities and citizens of Texas the utmost attention and courtesy.

Whereupon it was, on motion,

Resolved, 1. That the grateful acknowledgments of this Committee, on their own behalf and that of the Convention they represent, be, and they are accordingly hereby tendered to his Excellency the Governor of the State of Texas, and to the Legislature thereof, for the kind and courteous reception which they have been pleased to extend to our delegate, Mr. Payne.

Resolved, 2. That the thanks of this Committee be returned to Mr. Payne, for the able and efficient manner in which he has discharged the arduous duties of the important mission entrusted to him by us, and that the views he has taken of the nature of the task assigned to him by this Committee, and the measures he has adopted to carry out those views, meet our cordial concurrence and approval.

Resolved, 3. That a copy of the foregoing resolutions be forwarded to the Governor and Legislature of Texas.

Resolved, 4. That these resolutions, and the address of Mr. Payne, be published in the newspapers of this city.

M. M. Cohen, *Chairman.*

B. F. Flanders, *Secretary.*

The following is the address of Mr. Payne:—

To His Excellency P. H. Bell, Governor of Texas:

Sir:—The objects of my mission to the state of Texas, are clearly stated in the documents I had the honor of laying before you, to be: 1. The extension of the New-Orleans, Algiers and Opelousas Rail-Road across the state of Texas, from the Louisiana boundary on the east, to the Rio Grande, at or near El Paso, on the west. 2. To lay the views entertained in Louisiana on this measure before the Legislature of Texas, and to solicit her co-operation, if agreeable, in the extension of said work. 3. And to ascertain what aid, if any, Texas may contribute, either in money or lands, or both, towards the construction of such road across her territory, as the grand national highway from the Atlantic States to the Pacific Ocean. 4. And in the event of the action of Texas through her Legislature being favorable, to ask such further concurrence jointly with Louisiana, as may seem best, to call the attention of the Congress of the United States to the importance of completing the remaining portion of the road, from El Paso to the Pacific Ocean.

As the humble instrument selected to lay these important matters before the state of Texas, I respectfully solicit your attention to the following facts, statistics and arguments, and invoke such consideration of them as the wisdom of the state may award to their merits, or the interest of Texas in the premises may require. They are the suggestions of your brethren of the sister state of Louisiana, and are offered with the most kindly feelings of fraternal regard, as calculated in their humble estimation to advance the mutual prosperity of both, and to unite more intimately and closely the citizens of Texas and Louisiana, by ties of one common interest, one common brotherhood, alike beneficial to all.

In the discharge of the trust thus confided to me, I feel deeply my want of abilities to execute its delicate and responsible duties as they should be in a matter of such vast importance to the welfare of both Texas and Louisiana. As the humble agent from Louisiana, I have therefore to invoke the kind forbearance of Texas in the performance of the duty assigned me, and to ask that the mantle of a brother's love may cover the mistakes and errors I may commit. Let not so noble an enterprise as this, fail of proper appreciation of its great importance to the mutual interests of the citizens of two such great states, for lack of ability or tact on my part to present it as its merits may demand.

The first question, to which I now respectfully invite your attention, is the benefits the proposed extension of the New-Orleans, Algiers and Opelousas Rail-Road through your state, will confer upon Texas. This extension, commencing on the Sabine River, at some point to be designated by Texas, between thirty and a half and thirty-two and a half deg. north latitude, will pass through the state at or near El Paso. A glance at the map will show that it will develop the state nearly centrally from east to west. The distance, according to Creuzbauer's map of 1849, will be about 840 miles; by the way the road may run, it may be a few miles more, say 900 miles. That it will develop more largely the immense resources of the state than any other single line, is most evident. It will facilitate and cheapen to the gulf ports of Texas intercommunication with the whole state. For, after this road is once completed, Galveston, by a single short line tapping it, will be placed in full communication with the whole broad surface of the state, as well as with New-Orleans and all the commerce of the West now concentrated upon that city. Equally facile will be the communication from any other part of Texas, by the construction of other branches tapping this main trunk. On the other hand, branches extending through the sections of your state, between your principal streams, up to their head, and tapping this road on the north side, will place them in connection with all your gulf ports, as well as New-Orleans. Advantages are thus secured to your citizens of the markets of your own seaboard, as well as that of New-Orleans. Bearing this sketch in mind, let us now see what rail-roads have effected in other states, in giving additional value to lands and property, and we shall then be able to form some estimate of the influence they may exert in Texas in adding to its wealth.

In 1834, Massachusetts commenced making railways. In 1840, she had finished and in operation 167 miles, and about 650 in process of construction. On the first day of January, 1840, the returned value of *all* the property of the state, as made at the Auditor's office in Massachusetts, was $299,878,329. On the first of January, 1851, Massachusetts had 1,142 miles of rail-road completed, at a cost of $51,873,895; and the value of her property was returned at $666,252,581; showing an advance in ten years of $367,000,000! more than double what it was in 1840! This *increased value* is nearly equal to fifty-two and a half millions of dollars to every thousand square miles of her territory. The aggregate average value of the property of every citizen of that old state was doubled, and the rate of his taxation reduced more than one-half! For, if fifteen cents in the hundred dollars was sufficient to pay all his taxes on a valuation of $299,000,000, half that rate on a valuation of $666,000,000 must more than do it. The estimated cost of these roads is $45,424 per mile. The net *average* dividend for the last seven years, showing them to be good paying stock, is as follows, viz.:

Year.	*No. miles in operation, January 1.*	*Expended in construction.*	*Net income.*	*Average net income on cost.*	
1845	484	$21,572,820	$1,614,188	7.43	per cent·
1846	623	27,031,927	1,945.505	7.20	..
1847	715	32,796,363	2.505,079	7.14	..
1848	787	41,332,632	2,666,411	6.44	..
1849	945	45,125,768	2,850,981	6.32	..
1850	1079	50,959,452	3,306,713	6.49	..
1851	1142	51,873,985	3,323,802	6.41	..

These statements exhibit, first, that the rail-roads have more than doubled the value of the property in the state, and consequently more than doubled the value of the fortune of each citizen on the average. Second, that it has reduced the rate of taxation more than one-half. Third, that the average rate of dividends show the stocks of the roads to be worth par and more, and thereby show another fact, viz; that the roads can be sold now for more money than they cost; and that, if now sold, Massachusetts would have the increased value, amounting to three hundred and sixty-seven millions of dollars, and without its having cost either the state or its citizens a single dollar; and all effected in ten years, by the instrumentality of her rail-roads.

But the history of Massachusetts railways shows another fact of great importance, viz: the value of property in 1849, in the counties through which *no* railway passes, exhibits an increase, compared with the value in 1840, of $156,000,000, as the effect of the *indirect power* of such improvements, to impart value to property beyond the limits of the counties where they run.

In Georgia, lands on the line of the Chattanooga Road, that in 1846 could be bought for ten, twenty, thirty and fifty cents per acre, commanded in 1849, when the road was finished, ten, twelve, fifteen, and as high as twenty dollars per acre! The same road in its extension from Chattanooga down to Nashville, in Tennessee, passing through the counties of Franklin, Bedford, Rutherford and Davidson, show the following as the result of *one year* in adding value to property. The road was chartered and put under contract in 1848. The value of property in these four counties, as appears from the Auditor's books, was as follows:

	On 1st January, 1848.	*On 1st Jan. 1849.*
Davidson	$13,325,178	$14,194,744
Rutherford	5,770,404	6,151,862
Bedford	3,265,607	3,928,155
Franklin	1,502,854	1,843,921
Total	$23,864,043	$26,418,682

Showing an advance of $2,554.639 in *one year*, and the whole cost of constructing the road, (which was under contract,) was only $1,457,000. Here we have the fact that in one year there was returned, as the effect of the rail-road, the sum of eleven hundred thousand dollars to the pockets of the planters—more than the cost of the road when completed.

But the power of rail-roads to advance the prosperity of a state is not limited to imparting value to lands alone. They possess the power of creating a commerce where they are made. Col. Gadsden, State Superintendent of the Rail-roads of South Carolina, in a letter on the subject, recently published in the Charleston papers, says:—"that the immense increased value imparted to lands is from 500 to 5,000 per cent.;" and that the value of the products transported on a newly finished road, was "the first year not more than twenty thousand dollars, but which this year (the succeeding) will exceed two hundred and fifty thousand dollars."

The effects of rail-roads in advancing prosperity have been equally happy in New-York, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia and Alabama; and it is fair to presume equally beneficial results will accrue to Texas and Louisiana by their adoption and successful prosecution. We regard this question as settled, by every experiment in Europe and America, that every railway, to produce these beneficial results, must have one of its termini in a commercial mart, where the people seek a market for their surplus products. Rail-roads have failed, and will fail again and again, whenever this principle is disregarded or lost sight of.

Lands along the line of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road, that could have been obtained for the asking, while the country belonged to France and Spain, and which have been in market for thirty years, by the Congress of the United States without finding a purchaser, has, since the laying out of that road, advanced to three, and even as high as eight dollars per acre.

But not to multiply facts, (which could easily be done,) enough has been advanced to, satisfy any reasonable mind that rail-roads possess the power of advancing our prosperity beyond any other invention human genius has ever devised. Let us apply these facts to Texas and the road in question.

The proposed road from the Sabine to the Rio Grande will be over 800 or 900 miles in length. It will cost about $10,000 per mile. This will make a sum of eight or nine millions of dollars. The country through which the road will pass is one of unsurpassed loveliness, and in fertility of soil and salubrity of climate, equal to that of any state in the Union. Its water power is immense, and so far as is known of it, evidence of mineral wealth of various kinds, marble, coal, &c., are found to exist. The table-lands produce the finest wheat, corn, oats, rye and barley; fruits of all kinds common to the northern and western states, besides productions peculiar to the South, such as cotton, sugar and rice, and tropical fruits; horses, cattle, hogs, sheep and mules, can be raised in numbers almost illimitable, and wants but a system of rail-roads, branching from this main trunk, to afford outlets at all seasons, to be adopted, to bring into the state a tide of immigration from the southern and western states, to make it in population and wealth the first state in the Union. It is known at home and abroad that your rivers cannot be relied on as affording an outlet for your surplus products, and that the middle and northern portion of the state cannot, and will not be settled up to any great extent until such an outlet is afforded, such as this road would furnish. The ruinous expenses now incurred in this, the most beautiful and healthy portion of your state, by your planters, what few there are, in getting to any market, must and will keep away immigrants, and confine the price of lands down to a mere nominal value.

Texas now has it in her power to remedy these evils, by creating a confidence abroad, that this road shall be built. How can she do it, and at the same time pay off her present indebtedness? Answer.—The state owns one hundred and eleven millions of acres of land, and if the legislature would appropriate eight of the ten millions of dollars coming from the United States, confidence would be created that such an outlet would be had for all her surplus productions. That confidence thus created abroad, that such a road will be made, will induce a population to come to the state and purchase lands with unexampled rapidity. Your lands would no longer possess a mere nominal value. This road, passing nine hundred miles across your beautiful domain, would doubtless go through more or less of the public land: and, if it touched in its route but three or five millions of acres, who is there that cannot see, from the examples already cited, that the state would receive for these lands, as soon as the road was located, a sum sufficient to pay all her creditors, and have three millions of dollars left for other purposes of improvement, &c.? She would have the means, besides paying her present creditors, to build roads, tapping this great trunk, from Galveston and every other of her gulf ports; beside tapping it on the north, between the head waters of all her principal streams, giving corresponding value to the public domain, as each separate road should be laid out. That such a system, if adopted, would give an average value of five dollars per acre to her public land, within the time these roads would be under process of construction, cannot be reasonably doubted. The revenue arising from all these roads would be immense, and forever belong to the state. It would be sufficient to free her people in all time to come, not only from taxation, but supply the means to give a classic education to every child born on the bosom of her beautiful domain. But however advantageous such results would be to the state, its advantages in giving value to the property of her present citizens, owning as they do, so large a portion of the fertile lands of Texas, are equally evident.

But it is contended by some, that the ten millions of dollars, coming from the government of the United States, after fourteen years, although not money now, yet being convertible into cash at par, that Texas is bound to apply it in payment now, of her suffering creditors, many of whom are her war-worn soldiers as well as creditors. The reasonableness and justice of this view, Texas will no doubt duly consider. But in considering it, would it not be well to reflect that these war-worn soldiers of hers, whose claims now amount to less than a million of dollars, have but little of this world's goods to render them comfortable in life beyond the lands they now possess, and that those lands possess but little value at present, compared with that value they would have in three or four years, should the system of internal improvement be begun, with such an appropriation as that alluded to, to inspire confidence in immigrants that the scheme would be successful? In this view of the question, it becomes a matter of great consideration, whether the civil obligations and moral gratitude of the state would not be more fully met by such an appropriation of a part of this fund to rail-roads, than its immediate appropriation to the extinguishment of the claims of all her creditors. If by an application of eight of the ten millions of dollars to this work, an increased value of ten, twelve or fifteen dollars per acre would be added to their lands, as in the case of the Chattanooga lands, before referred to, would not such application be wise, and enable Texas to repay her soldiers and citizens in the most substantial manner the debt of gratitude so nobly won and so nobly recognized? If this road across the state would pass through only three millions of acres of public lands, and gave a value of only one-half of that which has been done by other rail-roads, say of five dollars per acre, we see at once the sum of fifteen millions of dollars realized—almost double the amount of the appropriation. This could be secured in four years time; and would enable the state to pay every creditor she has ten years before the money would be due and payable from the United States. Such an appropriation would still leave two millions of dollars untouched, out of which the home debt of her citizens could be paid, as it is less than a million of dollars, and then leave more than a million on hand beside.

But it may be well to inquire whether this road cannot be as fully carried through by a private corporation, with a liberal donation of lands by the state of Texas, as though it were done by the state itself?

In answering this question affirmatively, it must be remarked, however, that no private company or corporation, however liberal the charter may be, or the grant of land by the state, can ever inspire that confidence in the public mind, that would be secured at once to the state by such an appropriation as the eight millions would afford: and consequently no private company could execute that work near so cheaply, nor derive that benefit from the land granted to aid in its construction, as could the state. Confidence in the action of the state would at once be perfect and unshaken, and command, as it were, the necessary immigration to the state by its lands; while on the other hand, confidence in a company would have to grow up slowly and gradually, and only as the work progressed. In the meantime, the company would have to sell the lands at reduced prices to advance the work.

But in reference to this particular rail-road, this view bears against it with peculiar force, regarded as it must and will be by capitalists as a commercial transaction only. The reasons why this is so, are, that this proposed road is designed to cross the state from the Sabine to the Rīo Grande, as the great national highway from the Atlantic states to the Pacific Ocean, and for which there are other states now competing for it with great power. The most northern of these routes (Mr. Whitney's,) was regarded with so much favor, that the Senate of the United States passed the bill desired by that gentleman, appropriating a belt of land sixty miles wide, of which the road was to be the centre. This bill was sent to the House of Representatives, and left with its unfinished business. What its fate might have been, had it been reached, no one knows. A convention assembled in Memphis in 1846, which recommended that place as the starting point to the Pacific from the Mississippi River. To aid in its construction, Mr. Calhoun recommended in the Senate, an appropriation of a belt of forty miles of land, the road to be in the centre. Mr. Benton, of Missouri, recommended the St. Louis route, with a like appropriation of land. But besides these competitors and vast landed appropriations, the legislature of Texas, by resolutions passed in March, 1848, granted to the Congress of the United States, alternate sections in a belt of twenty miles, if the government would construct the road to the Pacific across her territory. The grant expired by its own limitation, in March last, Congress having declined its acceptance by its non-action. These various and separate movements have produced the conviction in the public mind, that if ever this road is made from a grant of land, that grant must be more liberal than any heretofore granted. The grant to the United States in 1848, by Texas, was more liberal than a grant of double that quantity now; from the fact, that the most valuable public lands have since been taken up by private claims; and what now remains are so much further from any point where immigrants would locate for years to come. Nevertheless, it is still not doubted, that the road can be constructed on a grant of land commensurate with so vast an enterprise. Whatever that grant may be, if sufficient to secure the completion of the road, aided by private capital, the road, when finished, would return more than a thousand fold value back to Texas and her citizens. The outlet and market it would afford for muskeet and other hay, from her almost boundless prairies, and now valueless to her, (without referring to any other articles of trade,) would each year more than repay a grant of thirty millions of the one hundred and eleven millions of acres of land she now owns. But this road is eminently needed now, to open the centre and northern portion of the state, to say nothing of the advantages it would eminently confer on its southern side, to the gulf. This road would direct a healthful tide of immigration from the southern and western states, such as would soon place Texas in the front rank of states, in wealth and population. Her soil and climate can support the densest population of any state in the confederacy. But to secure the construction of the road, as before said, a most liberal grant of land is absolutely requisite, if the work is ever consummated by such means. The wisdom of the legislature must decide these questions as the best interests of Texas demand. To that decision your brethren of Louisiana, and of the whole south, look with unshaken confidence, that it will be all that the patriot can desire.

The foregoing considerations address themselves to the interest of Texas and her citizens as a state. The cases of Massachusetts, Georgia, &c., show, conclusively, that such a road, traversing your state from its eastern to its western boundary, would immediately, on its location, add more than a hundred millions of dollars to the value of your lands; and that when completed, it would pour untold millions of wealth into the laps of your people and state.

But the *national* character of the road, and the changes it is destined to work, remain to be considered. When contemplated in this light, it exhibits a commercial power, the moral and political grandeur of which sink all other human enterprises into nothing.

Let us look at the history of the last fifty years, and see what has been accomplished by the United States; and by the lights of the past half century, obtain such aid as may direct our minds as to what the next fifty years may unfold.

The close of the last century found us engaged in a maritime war with France. The beginning of the present, opened with a war, by sea and land, with the Barbary powers, Tunis, Algiers, and Tripoli, closed by the peace of 1804. Louisiana and Florida on the east of the Mississippi River, and all west of that stream, belonged to Spain. By the treaty of San Ildefonso of April, 1803, France acquired Louisiana, and west of the Mississippi from Spain, and which was sold by her in June afterward to the United States. Florida was subsequently acquired by the treaty of Washington, from Spain, in 1819. The beginning of this century found us with a population, inclusive of slaves, of about five millions of inhabitants. Our commerce small, and suffering from the piracies of the Barbary states, and the aggressions of other powers—Europe in arms by sea and land, caused by the French revolution—Napoleon at the head of the French, engaged in war with England and other continental powers. England supreme on the ocean—Napoleon supreme on land. To crush the manufacturing and commercial power of England, Napoleon issued, in November, 1806, his Berlin decree, followed by his Milan decree, of October, 1807, and the two, constituting the celebrated Berlin and Milan decrees, followed by the British orders in Council of 1808, and all these, bearing disastrously upon the commerce of all nations, and particularly so on ours, which brought about our embargo act; England all the while impressing our seamen from our merchantmen, and which led to the declaration of war by Congress in 1812—exhibiting the fact, at that moment, of the whole civilized world being at war at one and the same time. Peace was ushered in by the close of 1815. But in the meantime, the United States had engaged in another war with the Barbary powers; Indian difficulties continued to exist more or less at home. Texas was annexed, followed by a war with Mexico, in 1846, and terminated by the treaty of Guadaloupe Hidalgo, 1848, by which our possessions on the Pacific were greatly extended.

Such is a brief summary of the difficulties we had to encounter and overcome the past fifty years, and whose history has been invoked to aid us in forming an opinion of what the next years may bring forth. At the beginning of it we had a population of about five millions, with a commerce proportionably small. Great Britain had then more commerce and more commercial tonnage than all the rest of the world combined. Compared with it, our commerce was a cipher. But at the end of fifty years our population has advanced from five to twenty-five millions; and on the first day of January, 1850, our commercial tonnage had reached 3,681,469 tons, while that of Great Britain, on the same day, was only 3,130,000 tons! showing an excess in favor of the United States over Great Britain of five hundred and fifty thousand tons. And yet Great Britain has now more commercial tonnage than all the rest of the world, leaving out the United States. With these facts before us, the question comes up—the next fifty years to us will produce what? If the territorial limits of the United States receive no further aggrandizement, our population will have advanced, according to our present increasing rate, to one hundred and fifty-four millions of people. Our commerce, now at the head of the world, will be—no matter what, but still at the head of the world, controlling every ocean, sea and river. The centre or heart of the commerce of the world has been the last several centuries, and now is, London. The next fifty years will see it transferred to the United States. Such must be its inevitable destiny! A question now arises of vast concernment—Where, on this Continent, shall that centre be located? The moment this question is propounded, we venture to assert, that there is not an intelligent mind in this vast confederacy but instantly responds, it must be either New-Orleans or New-York. The one or the other is destined to be the commercial mistress of the world! Which shall it be? This question, for aught we see to the contrary, may now be in the power of the present legislature of Texas to solve and decide. Could I but lift the veil that now enwraps the future of these fifty years, and show what that decision has made or marred, I should feel that I had discharged the highest duty a southerner owes to the South. Citizens of Louisiana await in trembling anxiety, but with confidence, this decision. They tremble, not from fear, but at the immensity of the stake involved in the decision Texas is about to make. You have the glorious one-starred banner, yet bright and undimmed, to guide your decision. Louisiana has the pelican standard, from which to feed the nations of the earth with the commerce of the world! That future centre of the commerce of the world must be a northern or a southern city—New-York or New-Orleans. The contest is noble—the prize, mistress of the commercial world! Louisiana does not doubt, in this contest, where Texas will be. And one of her humblest children says to Texas, "Courage—the South must win the prize." The interest of Louisiana bids me say, that nature seems to have intended that destiny for New-Orleans. Situated, as she is, on the mightiest river of the globe—that river penetrating the largest and the richest valley on earth, four thousand four hundred and ninety-one miles, with more than a thousand rivers for its tributaries—comprising, between the crest of the Alleghanies on the east, and the crest of the Rocky Mountains on the west, and our boundary on the north, an area of 1,921,146 square miles. That a single voyage performed from New-Orleans to the head of navigation of each river, tributary, lake, or estuary, and back, will show an inland navigation of one hundred and two thousand miles, as the development of the mighty Mississippi alone. To this add Texas, and our Pacific possessions, which this great road is designed to develop, and we have a territorial concentration upon New-Orleans of 2,989,274 square miles—more than a third larger than all Europe. Great as this is, yet when we look at the map of the world, this natural destiny of New-Orleans appears more distinctly marked. She is on the direct route from Europe, across the American continent to the Pacific Ocean and its islands—the East Indies and China. This road, once completed to the Pacific from New-Orleans, and the commerce of the Northern Atlantic states, Europe, East Indies and China, will all meet there, and Texas will be within two hours' ride of the commercial capital of the world. The South will cease to be traders to the north, but the North will be traders to the South. We shall then no longer be disturbed by northern fanaticism or aggression.

But in the midst of all this, where is the Republic of Mexico, Central America, Peru and Chili? Their commerce, their trade, will but go to swell the great aggregate of that which goes to increase the future ascendency of the South in controlling the fortunes and destiny of this great confederacy for all future time.

So long as Virginia was in the ascendency, and held the preponderance in our national councils, the distinctive marks which she impressed upon the public policy of the general government were, "protection to all rights; aggression upon none." Since Virginia has lost that ascendency, aggression and intermeddling with constitutional rights have been the order of the day, and have driven some states almost to madness and rebellion, while justice has been denied to private citizens. At all events, southern policy, as exhibited in the good old days of Virginia ascendency, has proved its capability of administering the general government satisfactorily to all, and aggression on none. Texas must take her place. She has territory, soil and climate, to make her the future vast empire state of the whole confederacy. Her wisdom and power to wield the destiny of this republic, then, as did Virginia of old, none will doubt. Her motto, doubtless, will still be, "PROTECT ALL RIGHTS; AGGRESS UPON NONE."

As a state, Texas will be benefited more than any other state by this road, although Louisiana will possess the commercial capital. It will make her and her beauteous domain the garden of the world; and, as before said, within ten hours' ride of New-Orleans, where she will meet the commerce of the great West, as well as that of Europe, &c.

But will the commerce of Europe and the Northern Atlantic states take this route to China, East Indies, &c.? We think so. The voyage out and back takes about fourteen months on the average. The saving of time—the saving of interest on investment—the saving of insurance on hull and cargo of vessels bound out, having to double Cape Horn or the Cape of Good Hope, we think will sustain us in this assertion. The insurance on hull and cargo is equal to about twelve dollars per ton. A vessel leaving Europe can deliver her cargo in New-Orleans in thirty days. It can be transported to the Pacific in five days, and in as many more days it can be delivered in China. It can return to Europe in as little time. This will make the voyage out and back five months, instead of fourteen; a saving of nine months' interest of capital—a saving of nine months' expenses of ship, captain and crew. Now, if the road should charge, per ton, for transport to the Pacific, only twelve dollars, the same that is now charged simply for insurance, would it not bring this trade along this route, seeing the advantages of the other savings of time, interest, and expenses of ship, captain and crew? It certainly would. But how much business would this give the road? In answer we say, there left during the year 1849 from the ports of the United States, Great Britain, France and Holland, 4,608 ships, of an aggregate tonnage of 1,805,688 tons, which, at the rate of $12 per ton, would give the sum of $21,668,256, and the return trip would make it as much more.

The business of our own territory would be immense, and the travel of the world would be through Texas. But we must not expect New-York will be idle, nor yield without the most vigorous struggle, the commercial supremacy to the South. She will be backed by Philadelphia, Boston and Baltimore. The whole capital of the North will be engaged in her behalf. All its talent, energy and untiring industry, will be exerted to secure this prize, as all others have been, to the North. Who will stand by New-Orleans in this contest? Will the South stand by her in this struggle? or shall we yield this, as we have all other advantages, to the North? The decision of Texas now may seal the fate of this question forever.

Having now presented this question before you to the best of my feeble abilities, both as to the interest of Texas as a state, and its national aspect as affecting all the southern and western states, I beg leave to close by saying, that the magnitude and importance of the subjects discussed must be my best apology for the length of this communication.

I have the honor to be, sir,
Very respectfully, your ob't servant,
BUCKNER H. PAYNE,
Agent Louisiana Railroad.

City of Austin, Nov. 10, 1951.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

1.—FOREIGN IMPORTS AT ST. LOUIS.

Statement of foreign merchandise imported, and duties paid, at St. Louis, during the year ending 31*st of December*, 1851, *made from the Report of W. W. Greene, Surveyor of the Port of St. Louis.*

[From the Western Journal, St. Louis.

FOREIGN merchandise imported into St. Louis in the year 1851, and entered here, the foreign value of which amounts to............	$757,509 00
Foreign merchandise entered at other ports in 1851, and now in transportation, under bond for the payment of duties at St. Louis, the entries being received, the foreign value of which is........	107,902 00
Amount of duties on foreign merchandise collected in 1851.........	239,318 68
Amount of duties unpaid for merchandise in store 31st December, 1851..	8,261 89
Amount of duties unpaid on merchandise in transit from other ports, destined to this port..	32,679 20
Amount of duties paid and accruing on merchandise imported for this port in 1851...	280,259 77

Of the above, exclusive of the said merchandise in transit, there was imported from England mdse. the foreign value of which was....	406,113 00
From France...	38,404 00
Germany and Holland..................................	23,239 00
Spain and dependencies................................	220,770 00
Brazil...	68,983 00
Total foreign value....................................	$757,509 00

The general description of merchandise imported, entered for consumption and warehoused in the year, and foreign value thereof, is as follows, viz.:

Sugar and molasses..	$289,753 00
Hardware, &c..	133,401 00
Rail-road iron..	100,211 00
Earthenware..	93,786 00
Tin plates, tin, iron, copper, &c..............................	81,482 00
Brandy, wines, gin, cordials, &c.............................	24,712 00
Dry goods and fancy goods..................................	24,287 00
Burr stones..	2,259 00
Drugs and medicines..	2,618 00
Total..	$757,509 00

Hospital money collected at this port in 1851.........................	$2,941 00
Hospital money expended at this port in 1851, for relief of sick and disabled boatmen..	$3,441 44

2.—STEAM-BOAT ARRIVALS AT ST. LOUIS,

From New-Orleans, the Ohio River, Illinois River, Upper Mississippi, Missouri River, Cairo, and other points, during the past five years, viz. : 1847, '48, '49, *and* 1851.·

	New-Orleans.			Ohio River.			Illinois River.			Up'r Miss'ippi.		
MONTHS.	1847.	'49.	'51.	'47.	'49.	'51.	'47.	'49.	'51.	'47.	'49.	'51.
January	22	13	20	8	5	13	9	14	23	4	2	10
February	15	32	22	16	18	22	8	19	36	8	4	12
March	48	38	29	28	58	45	85	82	78	41	79	65
April	77	36	31	41	65	62	91	63	63	74	117	65
May	93	22	40	61	38	59	106	42	78	128	73	97
June	49	19	25	37	38	34	60	56	37	91	77	56
July	67	21	13	41	13	28	58	33	30	81	53	48
August	24	17	23	37	16	45	41	62	61	51	67	61
September	28	31	22	30	33	34	45	87	54	57	77	63
October	22	26	27	67	40	37	57	70	52	80	87	56
November	32	27	29	42	43	47	60	93	83	69	100	77
December	23	31	19	22	39	31	38	65	39	33	61	29
Total	502	313	300	430	406	457	658	686	634	717	806	639

	Missouri River.			Cairo.			Other Points.		
MONTHS.	1847.	'49.	'51.	'47.	'49.	'51.	'47.	'49.	'51.
January	—	—	—	11	7	7	5	12	18
February	1	3	—	10	5	5	6	17	12
March	14	44	32	3	10	2	13	27	33
April	32	63	28	1	9	6	12	21	19
May	63	50	46	19	14	17	20	18	26
June	48	43	48	8	11	5	13	22	8
July	45	19	22	19	6	9	19	10	6
August	32	28	35	10	8	11	24	14	21
September	23	41	34	18	11	20	28	19	13
October	31	34	35	18	12	15	34	18	7
November	16	21	25	13	14	13	18	15	7
December	9	9	5	16	15	9	12	24	5
Total	314	355	301	146	122	119	204	217	175

3.—STEAM-BOATS AT ST. LOUIS,

Showing the monthly arrivals of Steam-boats and Barges, Keel and Flat-Boats, with their respective Tonnage, Wharfage, Harbor-Master's Fees, &c., for the years 1850 *and* 1851.

	Arrivals of steam-boats and barges.		Arrivals of keel and flat-boats.		Tonnage of steam-boats and barges.	
MONTHS.	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.
January	64	112	3	2	14129	23942
February	173	154	9	1	37241	29013
March	400	354	29	4	81969	71819
April	349	315	15	5	79505	73069
May	312	414	16	13	71825	98371
June	334	210	20	2	72984	57938
July	218	162	3	0	43196	40273
August	276	269	0	1	51789	62842
September	259	258	3	7	54610	59066
October	274	244	1	1	58268	57729
November	412	347	13	7	82980	73441
December	168	164	3	0	34756	35637
Total	2339	3003	115	43	681256	683140

Steam-boats at St. Louis continued.

MONTHS.	Wharfage.		Harbor-Master's Fees.		Paid into City Treasury.	
	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.	1850.	1851.
January	683 80	1777 52	54 70	106 65	629 10	1670 87
February	1825 50	2002 17	146 04	120 13	1679 46	1882 04
March	4091 90	5630 49	327 35	337 83	3764 55	5292 66
April	3865 75	5048 94	309 26	302 94	3556 49	4746 00
May	3566 15	6974 42	285 29	418 46	3280 86	6555 96
June	4048 92	3066 85	232 01	184 01	3839 71	2882 84
July	3137 10	2493 91	188 22	149 63	2948 88	2344 28
August	3518 87	4819 99	211 13	288 60	3907 74	4520 39
September	3870 48	4132 72	232 23	247 96	3638 25	3884 76
October	4267 15	4132 49	250 03	249 95	3917 12	3884 54
November	5718 46	5159 09	343 11	309 54	5375 35	4849 55
December	2601 00	2927 45	156 06	175 65	2444 94	2752 80
Total	$41195 08	$48156 04	$2735 43	$2892 35	$38382 44	$45266 69

4.—PORT OF PHILADELPHIA,

The following statement shows the value of the imports annually into the port of Philadelphia, and the duties accruing to the United States, from 1830 to 1851, inclusive. They have been carefully prepared from official documents :

Years.	Value of Imports.	Duties.	Years.	Value of Imports.	Duties.
1830	$9,525,893	$3,537,516 10	1841	$9,948,598	$1,983,681 64
1831	11,673,755	4,372,525 98	1842	6,201,177	1,812,842 82
1832	10,048,195	3,500,292 50	1843	4,916,535	1,437,837 84
1833	11,153,757	2,985,095 50	1844	8,410,864	2,981,573 15
1834	10,686,078	2,110,477 32	1845	7,491,497	2,370,515 71
1835	11,868,529	2,501,621 43	1846	8,308,615	2,608,068 16
1836	16,116,625	3,146,458 43	1847	12,153,937	2,904,748 97
1837	10,130,838	1,820,993 21	1848	10,700,865	2,767,459 13
1838	10,417,815	2,109,955 30	1849	10,160,479	2,694,245 34
1839	14,753,589	2,884,984 16	1850	13,381,759	3,412,239 68
1840	8,624,484	1,517,206 70	1851	12,795,440	3,673,123 80

5.—STEAM-BOAT DISASTERS ON THE WESTERN WATERS,

During the year 1850, *as published in the Insurance Reporter :*

Total number of boats	119
" " of lives lost	320

On the western waters during the year 1851.

From sinking, striking snags, and other obstructions of the river	52
From collapsing of flues	8
" explosion	16
" collisions	8
" fire	13
" various causes	12
Total number of boats	109

Lives lost, as near as ascertained, during the same period.

From collisions of boats	86
" explosion and sinking	407
" fire	161
Total number of lives lost	454

Comparative loss of lives during the years 1850 *and* 1851

	1850.	1851.	Excess.
Collision of boats	8	86	78
Explosions and collapsings of flues	161	407	247
Fire and sinking	156	161	5
Excess of lives lost in 1851			330

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—THE CULTIVATION AND PREPARATION OF COTTON, INCLUDING PICKING AND PACKING.

LAND intended to be planted in cotton should be bedded up as early in the winter as possible, to allow the freezes to pulverize the soil thoroughly and the land to settle immediately under the tap root. The plowing should be done with the best turning plows, as deeply as the nature and depth of the soil will admit, and in the most thorough manner. Especial care should be taken to leave no land unbroken between the furrows. If the soil is stiff and deep, two horse plowing, to a depth commensurate with that of the soil and ease to the team, is infinitely preferable; this secures a more thorough drainage and greater and freer penetration of the roots of the plant to the most sub-soil, in either wet or dry summers. The rows should be laid off with a scooter plow, at distances suitable to the strength of the soil, say five and a half feet to six feet on bottom land, and four to five feet on upland, or even less than four, if the soil is thin. Stubble land to go in cotton, (which should always follow corn, small grain, or fallow land,) should be broken or bedded up very early in the winter, to allow time for grass seeds and stalks to rot, and the frost to disintegrate furrow slice and clods. A good plan on stubble, corn, or fallow land to go in cotton, is to lay off the rows with a scooter plow; enlarge the furrow with a shovel plow; drag all the grass weeds or stalks into the furrows, and then list two furrows of a two-horse plow upon the soil of vegetable matter, leaving the bulks to be well plowed out with a turning plow about a fortnight before planting. This puts all trash out of the way in chopping out, and provides an absorbent for moisture and a bulk of manure beneath each bed. If a heavy rain or baking wind should run the land together, and form a crust upon the bed, a one horse harrow run over the bed will pulverize the crust and put the land in good tilth. Cotton should be planted from the fifteenth of March to the 10th of April, as the season or sort of land warrants. Seed should be well saved, and if kept over one year for planting, will ensure a better stand and more vigorous plants, as the imperfect seed perish by keeping over. They should be sown at the rate of one and a half to two bushels to the acre, in direct proportion to the width of the rows (narrow ones requiring more seed) and the stiffness of the soil, the latter case demanding also more seed. Seed on light land may be covered with a board with a notch in it, attached to a scooter stock. But stiff lands should always be covered with a harrow or two small scooter furrows. The ridge, in the latter case, over the seed, to be scraped off with a board with a notch in it, as soon as the seek cracks the ground in germinating. The board is useful in scraping off the first coat of grass; the first plowing of cotton should begin when the third leaf appears on the young plant, and be done with a sweep, Mississippi scraper, or some similar implement, as no roots are lacerated by this process, and the plant suffers no check in growth; chopping should begin in from four to seven days after running round, and to be done with hoes of as nearly equal size as possible, the stand being more uniform in consequence. From one to four stalks should be left in a stand at this time, and the distance between stands governed by the strength of the soil; though thick planting in moderation on all soils—say six feet by eighteen inches on bottom land, and four feet by twelve inches on good upland—will be found the most productive in an average of years. The second ploughing should be done with a sweep next to the bottom, with a mould board next to the plant, to dirt the young cotton, and the balance of the row plowed out with a turning plow to keep up the bed. The stand should then be thinned to one stalk in a place on strong land, but from two to four may be left on being thinned to supply limbs by stalks; all subsequent plowing in ordinary seasons should be done with the sweep, with the mould board to keep up the bed. But in laying by, one or two furrows should be run with a turning plow to drain off the surplus water from heavy rains; bottoms should be plowed every twenty days, and hoed immediately to keep it constantly growing, the earth light and pervious to the sun, air and dews. In very wet seasons, recourse may be had to turning plows with benefit, provided they do not penetrate deeply near the plant, for this checks the plant if it turns off dry by breaking the roots, and causes it to shed, and forces it too much in growth if rain follows speedily. It is doubtful whether topping cotton is beneficial in the average of years, sometimes doing well, and at others failing in nearly similar circumstances.

Picking should begin as soon as a hand can gather fifty pounds in a day, as the oil is soon evaporated by the sun, wind and rain, and a large per cent. of weight is thereby lost. In full crop years, cotton should be picked as free from leaf as is consistent with good work. But in short crop seasons, too much pains should not be taken with the leaf, as the difference in number of pounds will greatly overbalance that of loss of price per pound, and discrimination does not prevail in the market to any extent comparable with that of the large crop years. Planting seed should be saved from the second picking in general, and from cotton picked from midday till night, or that seemed well for the purpose. All other cotton should never be sunned unless wet by rain, but packed in close bulk from four to eight weeks, to allow it to heat; care being taken not to allow it to heat too much, and the oil from the seed to diffuse through the lint, imparting to it the tinge so admired by buyers and manufacturers. Ginning should be carefully done at a moderate speed. Packing should never be done in very dry or windy weather, but always in damp and moderately rainy days, as it packs better, weighs heavier, from the absorption from the air and retention of the oil latent in the lint. The bagging should always be put on loosely to allow for the swelling of the bale, and completely envelop the cotton. The ropes should be put on tightly, to prevent undue expansion of the bale, and be at least six in number.—*Soil of the South.*

2.—WOOL-GROWING IN TEXAS.

Wool-growing is making considerable progress in Texas. During a late tour we saw many fine flocks of thorough and mixed breeds. They all seemed to be doing well; and, with the same attention which sheep require elsewhere, they will, doubtless, prove highly profitable in Texas. We saw flocks with several hundred sheep in each, of improved stock, and they were all thrifty and promising. The exportation of wool will be looked upon as quite a heavy item in the trade of Texas within a few years, if present appearances are to be trusted. We notice by the papers of Illinois, that sheep have done well on the prairies of that state; and they may do so in Texas, though as yet most of the flocks have been confined to hilly and partially wooded districts.—*Galveston Civilian.*

3.—BEET-ROOT SUGAR vs. CANE SUGAR.

We find the following in the Moniteur Parisien: "Notwithstanding the advantages accorded to colonial sugar, and the duties which weigh on beet-root sugar, the latter article has acquired such a regular extension, that it has reached the quantity of 60,000 tons; that is to say, the half of our consumption. France, deducting the refined sugar exported under favor of the drawback, consumed 120,000 tons; of which 60,000 are home-made, 50,000 colonial, and 10,000 foreign. The two sugars have been placed on the same conditions as to duties; but it is only from the 1st inst. that the beet-root sugar will pay a heavier duty than our colonial sugar. In spite of this difference, we are convinced that the manufacture of beet-root sugar, which is every day improved by new processes, will be always very advantageous, and will attain, in some years, the total quantity of the consumption. In Belgium, the produce of the beet-root follows the same progress. The consumption of sugar there, was in 1850, 14,000 tons; of which 7,000 was beet-root, made in 22 manufactories. This year there are 18 new ones; and although their organization does not allow of their manufacturing in the same proportion as the 22 old ones, they will furnish at least 3,000 tons. The quantity of foreign sugar in that market does not reckon more than 4,000 tons. This conclusion is the more certain, as in 1848–1849, the beet-root only stood at 4,500 tons in the general account. It may be, therefore, seen from these figures what progress has been made. The same progressive movement is going on in Germany.

In 1848, it produced 26,000 tons, and in 1851, 43,000. The following table shows the importance of this improvement. It comprises the Zollverein, Hanover, and the Hanse Towns :

	Cane-Sugar.	Beet-Root.	Totals.
1848	60,500 tons	26,000	86,500
1849	54,000 "	34,000	88,000
1850	48,000 "	40,000	88,000
1851	45,000 "	43,000	88,000

Thus we find that in this period of four years cane-sugar has lost 15,000 tons ; and it will lose still more when new manufactories shall have been established. The consumption of Russia is estimated at 85,000 tons ; of which 25,000 is beet-root ; and what proves that the latter every day gains ground is, that the orders at Havana are constantly decreasing, and prices are getting lower. In 1848, Austria consumed 40,000 tons, of which 8,000 tons were beet-root. Last year she produced 15,000. The productions of the continent rising to 45,000 tons, and the consumption remaining nearly stationary, it is evident that Brazilian and Cuban sugars will encumber the English market, independently of the refined sugar of Java, which Holland sends to Great Britain. When the continental system was established by the decrees of Milan and Berlin, the Emperor Napoleon asked the savans to point out the means of replacing the productions which he proscribed ; it is to the active and useful impulse which his genius impressed on all minds, that France and Europe owes this fresh manufacture—a creation the more valuable, as its fortunate developments require the co-operation of chemical science and agricultural improvements."

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—HEMP BUSINESS OF NEW-ORLEANS.

HEMP.—We intimated in our last annual report there was likely to be a material falling off in the supply of hemp, as compared with the year previous, and the result shows the receipts here, since 1st September, to be 25,116 bales, against 34,792 bales last year, or a decrease of 9,676 bales. Respecting the course of trade in the article, we may say, as in the case of lead, that our city has almost ceased to be a market of sale, as there is no foreign demand, and the bulk of the supply is now sent here for transhipment to northern ports. Thus the entire sales of the season have barely reached 1000 bales, at $90 @ $103 per ton for dew rotted, and the total exports are 22,220 bales, of which 12 bales to Bremen is the only one to a foreign port. The following table exhibits the comparative receipts and average prices for a series of years.

	Bales,	Per Ton.
1842—43	14,873	$80 00
1843—44	58,062	66 00
1844—45	46.274	60 00
1845—46	30,980	60 00
1846—47	60,238	90 00
1847—48	21,584	115 00
1848—49	19,856	132 00
1849—50	34,792	109 00
1850—51	25,116	100 00

We have made some inquiries respecting the growing crop, and find that those best informed on the subject expect that the supply will be even less than that of last year.

2.—COFFEE BUSINESS OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Coffee.—This prominent article among our foreign products has met with extensive demand during the past season, and as importers have generally met the market pretty freely, and speculators have been more guarded in their operations, prices have not taken so wide a range, nor been subject to such sudden and extreme fluctuations, as was the case last year. Still, however, the difference between the highest and the lowest points is very material, amounting to 4½ cents per lb., the highest being 13 cents in the early part of October, before the arrival of any new crop, and the lowest 8½ cents about the middle of June. Last year the highest rate was 14¾ cents, in February, and 7½ in May. The first cargo of the season arrived on the 17th October, and the opening price for any considerable parcel was 12 cents per lb. The following table shows the imports, stocks, &c.

		Bags.
Estimated stock out of grocers' hands on 1st September, 1850, of all kinds,		28,000
Imports direct from Rio de Janeiro,	279,190	
Cuba, Laguayra, &c.	10,367—	289,557
Received coastwise for sale,		36,200
Making a supply of		353,757
Total supply last year		302,840
Increase		50,917

In the direct imports from Rio there is an increase, as compared with last year, of 54,177 bags, while in those from Cuba, &c. there is a decrease of 10,260 bags, and in the receipts coastwise for sale, a decrease of 15,000 bags. The present stock of all kinds, out of grocers' hands, is estimated at 4,000 bags, which would leave 340,757 bags as the quantity taken for the consumption of the West and South, against 269,554 bags last year; or an increase of 80,203 bags. From the interesting circular of H. T. Lonsdale, Esq., coffee broker, we take the following table, which shows the monthly sales and average prices for Rio coffee for the year ending July 1st, 1851, which embraces the coffee season. It will be seen that the average price of the entire year is 10 18-100 cents per lb.

		Bags.	Price.
1850—	July	11,833	9.36-100
	August	13,867	9.20
	September	26,559	10.40
	October	3,370	12.15
	November	35.094	10.54
	December.	59,159	10.15
1851—	January	67,120	10.78
	February	39,246	10.79
	March	42.193	10.22
	April	39,405	9.87½
	May	42,780	9.28
	June	14.409	9.10
		395,035	10.18

The total export from Rio de Janeiro during the last crop year, ending on the 30th June, was 1,880,685 bags, of which 852,144 bags were shipped to the United States, against 573,059 bags the year previous. The stock on hand at Rio was estimated at 50,000 bags, chiefly of the low qualities. With respect to the *new crop*, circulars state that it was expected to arrive freely in August, and promised to be of good quality. Its extent is estimated at not *less* than 1,500,000 bags, besides which there are supposed to be 300,000 to 500,000 bags of last year's crop remaining over. This would give a supply for the crop year to end on the 30th June next, of 1,800,000 to 2,000,000 bags. The particulars of the past year's export to the United States are as follows:—to New-Orleans and Mobile, 276,658 bags; Baltimore, 256,062; New-York, 243,215; Philadelphia, 33,688; Boston, 11,218; Charleston and Savannah, 7,015; California, 3,318. Total, 852,144 bags.

3.—PUBLIC DEBT OF THE UNITED STATES.

The Public Debt of the United States and of the several states, is thus given by a late commercial writer, being taken from the returns of 1850:

United States	$61,228,238	Mississippi	$7,271,707
Maine	979,000	Louisiana	16,238,131
Massachusetts	6,091,047	Texas	11,050,201
New-York	23,937,249	Arkansas	3,862,172
New-Jersey	62,596	Tennessee	3,337,856
Pennsylvania	40,424,737	Kentucky	4,531,913
Maryland	15,900,000	Ohio	19,173,223
Virginia	14,400,507	Michigan	2,849,939
North Carolina	977,000	Indiana	6,556,437
South Carolina	3,622,039	Illinois	16,612,795
Georgia	1,903,472	Missouri	956,261
Alabama	10,385,938	Iowa	55,000

Total 1850	$275,480,676
Total 1843	198,818,736
Increase in 7 years	$76,661,940

This shows an increase of about 30 per cent. in seven years, and returns for 1851 will show an additiou to the public indebtedness of 1850 of more than forty millions of dollars.

4.—RIVER LANDS IN ARKANSAS—INFORMATION USEFUL TO EMIGRANTS AND OTHERS.

The lands donated to the State of Arkansas by the general government, and known as the "Swamp Land Donatiou," are just now attracting the attention of the public. When we take into consideratiou the facts, that they are now being rapidly and permanently reclaimed by a general system of leveeing; that a large proportion of them need no reclamation; that they are the finest and cheapest lands in the Southwest; and are gradually but surely coming into market by the new settlements forming here and there on their borders—it is not to be wondered at, that they should begin to draw a very large share of the public notice.

Four hundred thousand acres of these lands lie in Crittenden county alone, just opposite the county of Shelby. On one side of this immense tract is the Mississippi, on the other the St. Francis river, both navigable at all seasons. Through the centre runs (or will soon run) a plank-road, already partly constructed, and the whole line under contract. And, judging from the indications not only in that state, but here in this city, we may now expect that it will be but a few years before a rail-road will be running alongside the plank-road, all the way to Little Rock. One half of these 400,000 acres never did overflow, and the levees now being constructed will secure all the rest from the highest floods of the Father of Waters.

Mississippi county, just above Crittenden on the river, also contains a very large amount of the lands of this donation—estimated at 450,000 acres. These, we are informed, are mostly choice lands, are as yet wholly unappropriated, and above any overflow without a levee.

Green, Poinsett, St. Francis, Jackson, Monroe, Phillips, De Sha, Chicot, Arkansas, Jefferson, Ashley, Drew, and a portion of many others of the best counties in the state, are subject to the Swamp Land Donation.

In all, the grant is believed to comprise about ten millions of acres, all of which will be exempt from tax ten years in any event; but if not reclaimed within ten years, without tax until reclaimed. Greater inducements were never before offered to settlers, nor to those who wish to make investments in scrip. There is little doubt that these lands can be purchased from the Levee Contractors (who are paid in scrip) much lower than land can be obtained even in Texas. They seem determined to make the levee, and of course, will sell large amounts of scrip to carry on their contracts to successful completion. In Crittenden county alone, there are now 600 hands at work, and in thirty days the principal outlets, through which the overflows have penetrated, will be stopped, thus saving the lands in that county from inundation during the coming spring, and from that time forth. It should, however, be distinctly borne in mind, that there are vast bodies and ridges of these lands which are of the class commonly called *second bottom*, and known to be the best and most durable cotton and corn lands in the South.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—ENGINEERING DEPARTMENT OF LOUISIANA.

We are obliged to our friend A. D. Wooldridge, Esq., State Engineer, for a copy of his very valuable Report for 1852; and we were preparing to give it an elaborate analysis, when there appeared in the Picayune one so full and minute, that we determined at once upon its insertion in preference to anything of our own. The closing pages of the report, in which Mr. W. very ably states his positions upon the Levee and Outlet System, we shall endeavor to transfer hereafter entire to our pages.

In the first district, which is composed of the Florida parishes, all the obstructions to the navigation of the Amite, except such as arise from the natural obstacles in the upper portion of the stream, have been removed, and now steamboat navigation may be prosecuted in ordinary states of weather as far as the mouth of the Comite, and in high water to Dennis's mills. The pressing work on Falia and Tchefuncta Bayous has been completed. All the obstructions of Holmes's Bayou, which forms the navigable connection of East and West Pearl rivers, and is the main outlet, have been removed, as well as all obstructions in West Pearl River, as far up as the present wants of the country require.

The plan of opening West Pearl River for steamboat navigation, so as to communicate directly with New-Orleans, is popular in that country, as shorter and more straight. Mr. Wooldridge thinks it feasible, and suggests that Mississippi might be willing to aid in the construction of a work of so much consequence to her. If she should not, the alluvial lands of Pearl River, which will fall to this state under the swamp act, are suggested as a fund which would contribute largely for that object.

The work of cleaning out Bayou Manchac has been completed, so that no bayou in the state is in better navigable order; and work has been done on the Tanchipao and the Bayou Betico.

The Second Improvement District is composed of the country lying between the Mississippi and Ouachita rivers, inclusive of the tributaries of the Ouachita. In this district, Bayou Bartholomew has been cleared out and made navigable as far as Point Pleasant, and considerable work performed still further up. Several cut-offs have been made; one at the "Big Round Turn," by an excavation ninety yards long, shortens the navigation many miles. The force was put on the Lafourche levee, which was fully repaired, but the engineer makes complaint of the want of a law compelling the parishes to keep their levees in order after they are put up firmly by the state. This levee has been several times in danger, because unprotected on the spot. It would often cost the state five times as much to transfer their force to the place as it would to make the repairs. The state levee on Bayou Marine, in Pointe Coupee, was destroyed in that manner.

The Bayou Macon has been thoroughly cleared out for 130 miles, and to within six miles of the Arkansas line.

Bœuf River has been so well improved, that it is susceptible of navigation by good sized boats at high water, and small boats at all stages.

Big Creek, one of the tributaries of Bœuf River, has been examined, and found capable of improvement for twenty-five or thirty miles, and the work is recommended.

In compliance with a resolution of the last legislature, the state engineer has made a survey of all the shoals in the Ouachita River, from Harrisonburg to Ouachita City, with a view of determining the expediency and the cost of removing them, so as to have navigation at low water. Upon an accurate examination, under the most favorable circumstances, Mr. Wooldridge reports that a large class of the shoals is of such a character that they cannot be removed without enormous expense, and would immediately be renewed again from the same causes. He reports, therefore, unfavorably upon this plan of improving the river. In an ordinary stage of water it is as little impeded as any river in the state, but requires some work to clear out obstructions. He suggests that a careful examination might show that a few locks beginning below Harrisonburg might secure enough water for low navigation.

A resolution of the last legislature required a survey of the three routes to Harrisonburg from the Mississippi River, and report upon their comparative advantages, and the expense of keeping them passable during the high stages of the Mississippi. He reports in favor of that which terminates at Waterproof, called the upper route. The other would be best to Trinity, and he estimates the cost at $50,090. In connection with this subject the report makes some remarks on the subject of roads in general, concluding that the state ought to have one thoroughfare to the western high lands, and concentrate all its present force upon that and gives a decided opinion in favor of what is called the Red River route, as far as practicable.

Nothing has been done on the Monroe and Mississippi road for want of force and appropriations.

The Third Improvement District of the state comprises Red River, Sabine River, Calcasieu River, and their tributaries. The results of the work in this district are less satisfactory than in any other. The only actual work reported, is the deadening of the timber on the Red River, from seven miles below Shreveport to the mouth of the Cushatta Chute, a distance of one hundred and forty miles; the clearing out of Loggy Bayou, the connection between Lake Bisteneau and Red River, the opening of Tones's Bayou about thirty miles below Shreveport, as the upper navigable connection between Bayou Pierre and Red River, and the improvement of Bayou Winsey, so that vessels ascending the Red River may pass into Bayou Winsey up by Bayou Pierre and the lakes, and come out again by Tones's Bayou.

A large part of the report is here devoted to an account of an examination of the Red River from Shreveport to the Arkansas line, under an instruction of the late legislature. We cannot give an idea by an abstract of the details. After arguing that it is the duty of the general government to lend strong aid for the general clearing of the river, he recommends, in view of all the circumstances of the case, that the state should immediately provide for the removing the obstruction of the falls at Alexandria, and the thorough improvement of the river up to Shreveport.

The Fourth Internal Improvement District includes all that portion of the state west of the Mississippi and south of Red River, except the Sabine and Calcasieu rivers and their branches.

In this district the engineer reports works on Terrebonne, from its mouth to Cane Bayou, and on Bayou Black up to the point where Cane Bayou connects with Terrebonne. Grand and Petit Caillou have been cleared out.

The force of the Third and Fourth Districts was occupied six months in repairing the breach of Grand Levee, in Pointe Coupee.

A levee has been built to close Mill Bayou, in the parish of Avoyelles. The raft has been removed from the lower mouth of Fausse Riviere, and no more work is needed in that river. Fifteen men were engaged twelve months in building a road in St. James's parish, from the Mississippi River to the Vacherie Ridge. It was completed in December. A levee has been laid off across Bonnet Careé point, in the parish of St. John the Baptist.

A contract has been made for the completion of the Lafourche and Barrataria Canal by the state, for $55,000, to be completed on the 1st of January, 1855.

The obstructions in Bayou L'Embarras and its outlets have been removed; all the obstructions in Vermilion Bayou, from the bay up to Perry's Bridge, about fifty miles. This makes it easily navigable in high water.

The raft has been removed in Grand River, but has since accumulated again to a considerable extent.

2.—SOUTHERN INDUSTRIAL CONVENTION, ETC.

The Alabama papers have been discussing a proposition made by Dr. Plough, of Louisiana, to establish a Great Agricultural and Mechanics' Exhibition and Fair of all Human Industry, to take place in May, 1853, in the city of New-Orleans, to be followed by annual fairs in the cities of Mobile, Natchez, and such other points as may favor such an enterprise. We think the proposition a good one, and should be delighted to see it carried out. Indeed, for several years we have been proposing something of the kind through our Review; and but lately, when the Southwestern Rail-Road Convention met in New-Orleans, we took occasion to announce a plan of such conventions and fairs, which will be made public as soon as the papers of the Convention are printed. Meantime we give the particulars of a meeting which has been held in Montgomery, on the subject:

> According to previous notice, a highly intelligent and respectable meeting of ladies and gentlemen was held in the State House, for the purpose of co-operating with Louisiana and other southern states in an effort to establish a Great Agricultural and Mechanics' Exhibition in May, 1853, in the city of New-Orleans.
>
> Hon. Price Williams, of Mobile, was called to the Chair, and James B. Gladney, of Pickens, appointed Secretary.
>
> The objects of the meeting having been explained by the chairman, the Hon. H. W. Hilliard made an address, and offered the following resolutions, which were adopted:
>
> *Resolved*, That we respond with sincere satisfaction to the appeal made to the state of Alabama by the Governor of Louisiana, and other eminent gentlemen of that state, to co-operate in an effort to establish "A Great Agricultural and Mechanics' Exhibition and Fair of all Human Industry, upon a large and magnificent scale," to take place in May, 1853, in the city of New-Orleans, to be followed by annual fairs in the cities of Mobile, Natchez, and such other points as may favor such an enterprise.
>
> *Resolved*, That the governor of this state be requested to appoint a delegation, con-

sisting of sixty gentlemen, chosen from different parts of Alabama, *to represent the State in the "Industrial Convention," to be held in New-Orleans, in April next.*

Resolved, That the Chairman of this meeting be requested to appoint fifteen gentlemen to act as a central committee, who shall hold their meetings in this city, and whose duty it shall be to correspond with persons throughout the state, interested in the success of substantial pursuits, with the view of preparing for a full participation, by the citizens of Alabama, in the proposed fairs at New-Orleans and elsewhere.

The Rev. Dr. Lipscomb was then called for, and addressed the meeting. Hon. J. E. Belser, by invitation, followed with a short address. Dr. Plough, agent from the State of Louisiana, to advance the interests of the exhibition, then addressed the meeting.

Hon. Mr. Davis, of Limestone, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That this meeting has listened with great pleasure to the remarks of the Rev. Dr. Lipscomb, and that he be requested to furnish a written copy for publication. Adopted. The meeting then adjourned.

PRICE WILLIAMS, *Chairman*.
J. B. GLADNEY, *Secretary*.

3.—INSANE ASYLUM OF LOUISIANA.

We have received the third report of this institution, which has been in existence three years, and in that time admitted 202 patients, and discharged 124 ; 54 being restored to sound mind. The number of deaths is 49. The number at present treated, 78. The receipts of the institution, in two years, $26,845 ; disbursements, $24,922.

The whole number of insane and idiotic persons in the State of Louisiana, cannot, at present, be ascertained ; but according to an official document recently received from the census office, at Washington City, the number of insane persons among the white and free colored population of the state, in 1850, was 289, classed in the following manner, viz:

Insane, white, ...		255
do. do. males, ...	153	
do. do. females, ...	102	
Total, white, ...	255	
Insane, free colored, ...		34
do. do. males, ...	19	
do. do. females, ...	15	
Total, free colored, ...	34	
Total, whites and free colored, ..		289

The above statement is exclusive of insane slaves, the precise number of whom we cannot at present state, having received no official returns of this class of persons; but, as the slave population of this state nearly equals that of the white and free colored, it would be reasonable to suppose that the insane, in both classes, would be also nearly equal. But it is a well known fact that insanity does not prevail to the same extent among the slave population, as that of the white and free colored. We will, therefore, deduct one-third from the supposed number of insane slaves, and the result will be as follows, viz:

Insane white and free colored, ...	289
Insane slaves, ...	192
Total insane persons in the State of Louisiana, ...	481

Our present buildings, at the utmost, affords accommodation for but eighty insane persons, thus leaving about 400 of these unfortunate creatures in the state without proper treatment, protection, or care.

4.—CATAHOULA PARISH, LOUISIANA.—CORRECTIONS.

J. D. B. DE BOW: Upon reflection I am fearful there are some errors in the "*boundaries*" of the parish, which are of such importance that I sincerely hope you will examine carefully and correct, and in order to do so I refer you to Latourette's map, which I have examined *since* writing. North is correctly stated—East, by Tensas and Black rivers, or Concordia parish—South, by Bayou and Lake Saline and Little River, or by Avoyelles and Rapides parishes—West, by Rapides and Natchitoches, or by Dugdemona River; but I refer you to the map.

In speaking of Harrisonburg I did not state that it was named by Harrison after himself.

In speaking of Trinity I omitted to mention that it was *incorporated* by an act of the *last* legislature, and that Joseph Guss was chosen first Mayor, or Chairman of the Town Council. Of the church in Trinity, the size should be 25 by 40 feet; cost, $700.

5.—ST. LOUIS MERCANTILE ASSOCIATION.

We thank the St. Louis Mercantile Association for the honor they have done us in these resolutions :

Resolved, That the Board of Directors of the St. Louis Mercantile Library Association appreciate the efforts of J. D. B. De Bow, Esq., of New-Orleans, in collecting, in his "Commercial Review," statistical information of great value to the South and West, and that we regard his journal as valuable to the merchants of St. Louis and New-Orleans, and cordially recommend it to their patronage.

Resolved, That the Corresponding Secretary is hereby instructed to forward a copy of these resolutions to Mr. De Bow, as a slight testimonial of our regard for his important labors, and our desire to promote the success of his useful journal.

GEO. R. ROBINSON,
Corresponding Secretary.

6.—CINCINNATI MERCANTILE LIBRARY, 1852.

James Lupton has been elected President; E. B. Hinman, Vice; H. D. Huntingdon and L. A. Ostrom, Secretaries; Charles R. Fosdick, Treasurer. The Directors are Mess. Chenowith, Woods, Merriam, Thompson and Caldwell. Mr. Fabian, the late Secretary, has removed to New-Orleans, and is mentioned in high terms by the Board. The receipts of this association are $7,779 01 for 1851, and the expenditures for books, lectures, and refitting rooms, $5,330 22. The library now contains 11,769 volumes. All praise is due to this worthy and estimable association.

7.—AGENCIES OF AGRICULTURE.

We are indebted to the Hon. Stephen A. Douglass for a copy of his admirable and comprehensive address upon the "Agencies of Agriculture," delivered before the State Agricultural Society of New-York. Mr. Douglass reviews the whole field of American agriculture in the spirit of a scholar and a patriot. We can only make a single extract, though it would be doing good service to our readers to insert the whole address, which is high-toned and liberal in its views:

"We are now able to furnish the whole world with the cheapest and best food, and with the cheapest and best raiment. We furnish grain, provisions and cotton—the three staple articles of commerce—in greater quantities and of better qualities, than any other nation; and the time is not far distant when we will be able also to regulate their prices. What a boundless field, then, is opened to our agricultural industry! What ample reward to the labor of our farmers! The command of the world-staples, even without the acquisition of California, (which secures to us the control of the precious metals,) must have given us the control of the commerce of the world. But independent of these international considerations, there is yet another which will naturally suggest itself to your minds. Our agricultural products, owing to the vast extent of our territory, and the great differences of soil and climate, are so varied, as to furnish abundant exchanges for the domestic trade between the different states of the Union. They furnish, in themselves, the materials of a very extensive internal commerce; employ, to a large extent, our coasting tonnage, and secure constant employment to our steamboats and rail-roads.

"Planting and farming are the mutual allies of each other, as are, indeed, all branches of agricultural industry, notwithstanding any prejudice which may be entertained in different sections of the country. They take a narrow view of political economy, who can see but rival interests growing out of the different productions of the same country; and they are worse than bigoted who, in consequence of it, indulge in unworthy jealousies or hostile sentiments towards brethren of the same family. You cannot, by legitimate means, benefit any one branch of industry of a great country, without indirectly benefiting all the rest; but when, as in the case before us, one interest is dependent on the other; when the producer of the one article is the best and often the only consumer of the other, who is so rash as to assert that the prosperity of the one works the injury of the other?"

8.—LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1.—*Hungary and Kossuth.* By Rev. B. F. Tefft, D.D. New-Orleans: John Ball, 1852.

This is a volume of about 400 pages, handsomely issued, and written with considerable vigor. It discusses the character and condition of the country, origin, and condition of the people, religion, language, and literature; Hungarian Constitution, external relations, attempts to overthow the Hungarian Nationality, the Austrian Revolution, Rebellion of the Sclaves, the Austrian Invasion, the Fall of Hungary, etc. Whilst European subjects are engrossing so much of popular attention, and whilst there is such a growing probability that we will eventually, whether we will it or not, be involved in European politics and quarrels, it is well for our people to begin their study. We never doubted that European intervention would one day or other become an American doctrine, though fervently desiring to postpone that day as long as possible. The arguments which are now urged for intervention are suicidal and absurd.

2.—*Essays on Interest, Exchange, Coins, Paper Money, and Banks.* By J. R. McCulloch, Esq., author of "The Commercial Dictionary." Philadelphia: Carey & Hart. New-Orleans: J. B. Steel.

The title of the volume, and its author's name, will speak sufficient for its contents. There are four parts: 1, on Interest and the effects of the Usury Laws; 2, on Foreign and Domestic Exchange; 3, on Money, Coins, Bullion, Seignorage, Standard, etc.; 4. on Paper Money, and on Banks. The volume will be highly useful to every class of citizens.

3.—*Sixteen Months at the Gold-Diggings.* By Daniel Woods. New-York: Harper & Brothers. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan.

This Mr. Woods would seem to have seen what is vulgarly called the "elephant," judging from the gloomy pictures he furnishes of California life and gold diggings. He gives a table of the earnings of 56 miners of his acquaintance laboring in the richest portions of the mines, and believes the general average for others to be much less:

Number of miners,..................	56
Length of time (working days),.......	121
Number of days' work,...............	6776
Whole amount made,..........	$22,089 76
Aggregate each day,...........	182 56
Average to each miner per day,.	3 26

4.—*A Lady's Voyage Round the World;* translated from the German of Ida Pfeiffer; by Mrs. Percy Sinnett. Harper & Brothers. New-Orleans: J. C. Morgan.

Madame Pfeiffer tells us, in her introductory chapter, how it came about that a "lone woman," contrary to all the habits and usages of her sex, should have encouraged the fancy of visiting strange countries, and actually carried it out in a manner which would shame the sterner sex. In the first place, her birth-day was *in the last century*, which she regarded so far a protection. She says, "From my earliest childhood I had always the greatest longing to see the world. I read all books of travels I could get hold of. I traveled at last with my parents, and then with my husband. When my children's education was completed, I formed my resolution with a joy amounting to rapture. I set out alone on my journey to Palestine, and as I came home again in perfect safety, I trusted I had not acted presumptuously in following the impulses of my nature, and I determined to see a little more yet of the world."

5.—*Dream-Life:* A Fable of the Seasons. By Ik Marvel.

> "We are such stuff
> As dreams are made of; and our little life
> Is rounded with a sleep."

New-York: Charles Scribner. New-Orleans: John Ball. 1851.

The author, who is Donald G. Mitchell, of New-York, has dedicated his production to Washington Irving. Under the assumed name of Ik Marvel, he has contributed a class of very interesting fictions to the press, which have won for themselves a wide celebrity. The present work is divided into appropriate heads, to wit: Dreams of Boyhood; Dreams of Youth; Dreams of Manhood; Dreams of Age, &c. The style is chaste and simple. We can give but a single specimen on woman's love:

"That deep, thrilling voice, bearing all the perfume of the womanly soul in its flow, rarely finds utterance, and if uttered vainly—if called out by tempting devices, and by a trust that is abused—desolate indeed is the maiden heart—widowed of its chastest thought. The soul shrinks affrighted within itself. Like a tired bird lost at sea, fluttering around what seem friendly boughs, it stoops at length, and finding only cold, slippery spars, with no bloom, and no foliage—its last hope gone—it sinks to a wild ocean grave."

6.—*Report of the Society for the Relief of Destitute Orphan Boys.* 1851.

This is one of those blessed institutions which do so much to illustrate the heavenly impulses which are at the heart of man, let him do ever so much evil as he will in this world. It was established nearly twenty-eight years ago in New-Orleans, under the auspices of Beverly Chew and Judge Workmen. In that time, 866 destitute children have been taken care of. The number at present within the walls is 98. Only a small part of its support is derived from any fixed revenue, the rest resting entirely upon individual charities from year to year. Should not this prove a loud appeal to our citizens? Ten dollars constitute the donor a member of the Society; and fifty dollars a *life member*. We make a short extract from the report:

"The directors have the happiness to know, that there have been boys from this asylum who have reached the most honorable positions in society. We have one a respectable minister of the Gospel. Two have become distinguished navigators—one being the commander of one of the largest and finest packets between this city and France; the other is younger, but bids equally fair to become an ornament to his profession, and is now the second officer of a fine vessel. Another is a lawyer, and lately, by the confidence of his fellow citizens, has been elected, by a very flattering vote, a member of the state legislature, and has the happiness to be one of the present Directors of this Board. Others are respectable merchants' clerks; and many adorning, by their industry and sagacity, a variety of the mechanical trades in our city; while others have been placed with honest farmers in the West, and from whom we have agreeable accounts. Some have grown up, have married, and become fathers of families."

7.—*The Southern Magazine.* Vol. I. No. 1. Mobile. 1852.

Reports of Alabama and Tennessee Rail-road Co.

Reports of James River and Kanawha Co. Rail-road.

The Southern Magazine is a new monthly, published in Mobile, and edited by Willis G. Clark, at the low price of $1 per annum. The print is neat and creditable to our sister; the original articles are as good, if not better, than those of the current literary magazines of the North of the same class. The editorial evinces intelligence and spirit. The work is purely literary, and as such assuredly deserves the support of the South-west. It is a happy improvement upon the one which was published last year in Mobile, and which seems early to have fulfilled its destiny.

The Rail-road reports, noticed above, will be referred to in the appropriate place in our future numbers.

8.—*Studies on Slavery.* By John Fletcher, A. M., of Louisiana.

We have seen some of the manuscripts of this work, which are written with great force and ability. It is proposed to publish them next winter in a volume of 600 pages, at $3 00. We have no doubt that the erudite author will be rewarded with a most liberal public patronage. Dr. Cartwright, of New-Orleans, thus gives his testimonial:

New-Orleans, Aug. 23, 1851.

I have read the manuscript you sent me containing Mr. Fletcher's first thirteen "Lessons on Slavery." To say that it is an able document, well written, and in the proper spirit, would be poor praise. I consider it immensely valuable, and that it ought to be read by every intelligent person North as well as South. * * * * *

I have long known Mr. Fletcher by sight, and have attended on him when sick; have often had casual conversations with him, and considered him a very learned man; but I must confess that I had formed, from a quarter of a century's acquaintance, no just conception of the extent of his erudition, and the remarkable powers of his mind, until I read the manuscript you sent me. * * *

The lessons will be doubly useful to the North, as they untie the knots and meshes of that web of sophistry which has entangled the intellectual and moral faculties of northern people, and made them the *slaves* of false doctrines, &c.

9.—BOOKS AND PERIODICALS.

1.—*Lectures on the History of France.* By the Right Honorable Sir James Steven, Professor of Modern History in the University of Cambridge, England. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 1852; J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

Sir James Stephen, being appointed to a chair in Cambridge, set about the preparation of these lectures, which are to be continued, and the subjects brought down to later date. The author tells us that he does not design to present the book as a compilation; that the plan of it, at least, is his own—that in the execution of that plan he has declined no labor, mental or bodily—that he has examined all the authorities, original and secondary, and diligently meditated every result to which his investigations appeared to lead. That he availed himself of the aid of the great authors of France, &c., &c. The volume embraces the Romano-Gallic history; the Merovingian and Carlovingian dynasties, the Crusades, the Monarchical System of France, the States General, the Revenues of the Kingdom, the Reformation, etc. Several lectures are devoted to the power of the pen in France, and to the monarchies of Henry IV. and Louis XIV. The work concludes with a comparison of the French and English monarchies.

2.—*Wesley and Methodism*; with a Portrait. Harper & Brothers; Morgan, New-Orleans.

"Until this book appeared," says the critic of Bell's Messenger, "it may be truly said that the life and character of the great apostle of Methodism had never been thoroughly analyzed, neither had the motives which led him to his course of action been dispassionately investigated. Mr. Taylor has anatomized both the founder of the society, and the society itself, with great talent and judgment."

3.—*Bankers' Magazine*, February, 1852. Price $5 00 per annum. J. Smith Homans, Boston.

Contents: I. Recent History of the Bank of France.

II. Fluctuations of the English Funds for the year 1851.

III. Fluctuations of the New-York Stock Market in 1851.

IV. Lawson's History of Banking. Chapter V.

V. Sketch of the Recent Progress of the Assurance of Life and Property on the Continent of Europe.

VI. Digest of the Decisions of the Supreme Court of New Hampshire upon Banking, Bills of Exchange, Promissory Notes, Usury, &c.

VII. Bank Correspondence. 1. Liabilities of Banks. 2. Notarial Forms. 3. Bank Exchanges in Philadelphia.

VIII. Suggestions for a New System of Bank Exchanges.

IX. Bank Statistics. 1. Alabama. 2. Indiana. 3. Michigan. 4. Massachusetts.

X. Miscellaneous.

XI. Bank Items; New Banks; New Appointments; Deaths of Bank Officers.

XII. Notes on the Money Market for January.

4.—*American Journal of Science and Art.* Conducted by Professors Silliman and Dana, aided by Dr. Wolcott Gibbs. New-Haven. $5 per annum. The publishers offer for sale of this valuable work the 1st series, 50 volumes; price, $100, (unbound); 2d series, 10 vols., price, $20.

5.—*Literary World.* New-York; $3 per annum. An admirable weekly journal, chronicling the literary movements of our own and all other countries, with the most sprightly criticisms, etc.

6.—*Norton's Literary Advertiser.* New-York; monthly. $1 per annum. This is the cheapest and the best guide to the literary man, in the purchase of books, which can be had in any quarter. Every work published in the United States, England, France, and Germany, is mentioned, with the name of the publisher. Among the notices of books, are monthly indexes of all the magazines published in this country or Europe. No scholar or reading man, or even amateur in books, should be without this cheap compendium.

7.—*Rail-Road Journal.* New-York; weekly. $5 per annum. Mr. Poor, the editor, is continually enlarging the sphere of usefulness of his work; and we hope it will extend wider and wider in the South and West, where we are most deficient in rail-road experience and information.

8.—*Southern Literary Gazette.* Weekly, with semi-monthly supplement. $3 per annum. Charleston: Walker, Richards & Co. An admirable family journal, which we hope is extending widely the area of its circulation.

9.—*The Soil of the South.* Columbus, Georgia. An instructive agricultural journal, which has reached the second number of the second volume.

10.—*Farmer and Planter.* Edited by Seaborn & Gilman, Pendleton, S. C. $1 per annum. This well conducted sheet deserves large patronage among southern planters.

11.—*Harper's Monthly Magazine.* $3 per annum. The February No. contains two beautifully illustrated papers upon Benjamin Franklin and Napoleon Bonaparte. The summary of Home and Foreign events, and the Editor's Table, are worth more than the whole subscription price.

12.—*Reports of the President, Directors, and Engineer of the Alabama and Tennessee Rail-Road Co.* 1851. This able report must bide its time until the matters of the late Convention are entirely disposed of by us.

CIRCULAR.

Paris, Jan. 10, 1852.

At a recent meeting of the American physicians in Paris, an association was established, whose object is the promotion of medical science.

This association, essentially national, is designated the *American Medical Society of Paris.* It is intended to be permanent in its nature, and is now progressing under the most favorable auspices. Notwithstanding the vast advantages afforded by the French metropolis for the study of medical and surgical science, we feel ourselves isolated from our national medical literature, and, therefore, confidently appeal to the conductors of American journals and periodicals.

We do this with the less hesitation, feeling assured that it will be not only a medium of improvement to ourselves, but a means of a more general diffusion, and just appreciation of American literature.

By order of the Society,
A. J. Semmes, M. D.
Cor. Sec. of the Am. Med. Soc. in Paris.

SOUTH-WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

The proceedings, reports, speeches, etc., of this important body, which we begun to publish in our last number, and have continued at length in this, will be finished next month. They will afterwards be published in pamphlet form. Our readers could not have placed before them more interesting material than is furnished in these papers, indicating, as they do, the course of opinion, and the future probable action of the whole south-western country. The able speeches of Mr. Robb, of New-Orleans, and Mr. Burwell, of Virginia, were not furnished to us in time for the present number.

OUR JANUARY NUMBER, 1852.

Should the reprint of this number not have reached those of our subscribers who were not previously supplied, they will favor us a little longer, in the assurance that they will receive it long before the period for binding the volume, and in the further assurance that such a contingency shall not occur again.

We apologize for the want of variety in the papers in the present number, but pledge ourselves that the one for May will be the ablest, the largest, and the best ever issued from the office of the Review.

LATE PUBLICATIONS

Received at J. C. Morgan's New-Orleans Literary Depot, Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office.

Horsemanship—Including the breaking and training of horses. By Foucher. Illustrated.

The American Almanac for 1852.

Napoleon's Old Guard. By J. T. Headley, author of Napoleon and his Marshals, &c.

The Studies of Animals. Illustrated, for Lead Pencil and Crayon.

Heaven and the Sainted Dead. By Rev. H. Harbaugh.

No Such Word as Fail. A Juvenile Book. By Alice B. Neal.

Rules of Order. A Manual for Conducting Business in Deliberative Bodies. By B. Mathias.

Dream-Land by Daylight. By Caroline Chesebrough.

The Reveries of a Bachelor. By Ik Marvel. Elegant illustrated edition.

Knapp's Chemical Technology. Vol. 3, English edition.

Oregon—Its History, Condition, and Prospects. By Rev. Gustavus Hines.

The Lives of James Madison and James Monroe. By John Quincy Adams.

Science of Government, and Compend of the Constitutional and Civil Jurisprudence of the United States. By Andrew W. Young.

Gift Book for Young Men; or Familiar Letters on Self-Knowledge, Self-Education, Female Society, Marriage, &c. By Dr. William A. Alcott.

Gift Book for Young Ladies; or Familiar Letters on their Acquaintances, Male and Female.

Dream Life. A Fable of the Seasons. By Ik Marvel, author of Reveries of a Bachelor.

The Golden Legend. By Longfellow.

Florance, the Parish Orphan; and a Sketch of the Village in the last Century. By Eliza B. Lee.

Recollections of my Childhood, and other Stories. By Grace Greenwood.

The Wonder Book for Boys and Girls. By Nathaniel Hawthorne.

Tales from Catland. By an Old Tabby. With engravings.

Memoirs of a London Doll.

A Faggot of French Sticks. By Sir Francis Head.

Memoirs of the Great Metropolis, London, from the Tower to the Crystal Palace.

Woman in her various relations. By Mrs. L. G. Abell.

Nicaragua—Its People, Scenery, Monuments, and the proposed Interoceanic Canal. With numerous original maps and illustrations. By E. G. Squier.

Thirty Years with the Indian Tribes on the American Frontiers. By H. R. Schoolcraft.

Sixteen Months in the Gold Diggings. By Daniel B. Wood.

A Lady's Voyage Round the World. From the German of Ida Pfeiffer. By Mrs. Percy Sinnet.

Adrian; or the Clouds of the Mind. A romance By G. P. R. James, and Maunsell B. Field.

Sketches of Boston—Past and Present. With one hundred and twenty engravings.

A History of Classical Literature. By E. W. Brown.

Discourses on Scriptural Prophecy. By Dr. Turner.

The Practical Model Calculator. By Oliver Byrne.

Lectures on the History of France. By Sir J. Stephen.

Wesley, and Methodism. By Isaac Taylor.

The Odd Fellow's Text Book. An elucidation of the Theory of Odd Fellowship, embracing a detail of the System, in all its branches. By Paschal Donaldson, D. D., Grand Master of the R. W. Grand Lodge of Northern New-York.

NOVELS.

Fernley Manor; or Edith, the Inconstant. By Mrs. Mackenzie Daniel.

The Fortune Teller. By Eugene Sue.

Venetia Trelawney, the Sequel to Caroline of Brunswick. By Reynolds.

The Rifle Rangers. By Captain Mayne Reid.

Aims and Obstacles. By G. P. R. James.

The Tutor's Ward.

MAGAZINES.

Harper's Magazine for Jan. and Feb.

International	do	do
Eclectic	do	do
Knickerbocker	do	do
Blackwood's	do	do
Merchant's	do	do
Graham's	do	do
Sartain's	do	do
Godey's Lady's Book		do

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine for January and February.

London Art Journal for Jan. and Feb.

London Lancet for do.

Silliman's Journal of Sciences and Art, for Jan and Feb.

TEXAS—GENERAL AGENCY.

ESTABLISHED 1842, BY A. F. JAMES, CITY OF GALVESTON.

Capitalists and others wishing to make investments, can always find at this office a list of improved and unimproved Real Estate for sale, consisting of building lots suitable for stores and private residences; also, cottages and desirable family residences in the city and suburbs.

Conveyancing, and all other instruments of writing, legal or commercial, carefully and neatly drawn on paper or on parchment.

Land Titles examined, and defective Titles perfected, when practicable. Title-papers, and other instruments, recorded in any of the record offices throughout the state.

Orders for the purchase or sale of slaves, or real estate, faithfully executed. Sugar and cotton plantations, and unimproved lands in various sections of the state, for sale. Claims against the Republic of Texas, and against private individuals, received for collection and prosecuted. The payment of taxes in all the counties of the state, carefully attended to; and property which may have been sold for taxes in the several counties, redeemed. Maps of all the principal counties, with the original surveys, are now preparing for this office; and abstracts of all original land titles granted by the states of Coahuila and Texas, and by the late Republic of Texas, can be examined at the General Agency Office.

The undersigned have known Mr. A. F. James, as a citizen of Galveston, for the last eleven years, during most of which time he has been engaged in the above business, for which we believe him well qualified, and recommend him to such as require the services of an Agent in Texas, as a gentleman in whom the fullest confidence may be reposed.

EDWARD HILL, *President*
Galveston Chamber of Commerce.
J. BATES, U. S. M.

M. B. MENARD, *President*
Galveston City Company.
JOHN C. WATROUS,
Judge of the Dist. Court of the U. S.

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Titus & Co	Memphis,	Tenn.
Horton & Clark	Mobile,	Ala.
Gilmor & Co	Montgomery,	do.

ABERDEEN FEMALE COLLEGE, MISSISSIPPI.

The Sessions of this Institution commence annually on Monday preceding the first Monday in October, and the annual Examinations take place the last week in July, continuing four days.

The course of instruction is a regular, collegiate course, and is as extensive and thorough as in any Female Institution, North or South. It has a regular and permanent faculty, ably sustaining every department. It is provided with an excellent Apparatus, and the course of Lectures and Experiments are equal to those in our best Male Colleges. In connection with the study of Physiology and Hygiene, physical training is conducted systematically; the only means by which symmetry of form and elegance of manners can be secured, and health promoted. The voice is cultivated upon the philosophical system of Dr. Rush. And it is believed that many years of health and happiness may be added to the life of those thus educated.

R. S. GLADNEY, President.

Gallery of Industry & Enterprise.

DE BOW'S
SOUTHERN AND WESTERN
REVIEW.
ESTABLISHED JANUARY 1, 1846.
MAY, 1852.

VOL. XII., O. S.] ENLARGED SERIES. [VOL. II., No. 5.

ART. I.—THE STRAITS SETTLEMENTS, AND THE INDIAN ARCHIPELAGO,

PRINCE OF WALES ISLAND—MALACCA—SINGAPORE—CULTIVATION OF RICE IN INDIA, &C.

[CONCLUDED.]

THE Malays, during the intervals alluded to, often turn woodcutters in the forest, and float down the rivers large rafts of lumber and timber for house and boat building, and spars for vessels. The spars average sixty feet in length, and twelve feet in girth. The junks come down from China with old masts, which they exchange for new ones, selling them in China at a handsome profit of three to four hundred per cent. The cutting and preparing of Attaps, for thatching houses, and Kajangs, (mats,) for affording temporary shelter to the crews of boats, yield employment to numbers. Dammer, (resin,) Dammer-oil, (liquid resin,) rattans, and dragon's blood, are sought after in the jungle at the imminent risk often of tigers.

While the able-bodied members of a family are thus variously engaged, the women arrange domestic affairs at home, being assisted by the old men and children. Independently of the employments adverted to, the Malays engage in petty traffic along the coast, or proceed far up in the interior to barter goods with the wilder tribes called Orang Benua, (Children of the Soil,) the aborigines of the Malayan Peninsula. Boat building is a favorite employment with the men who stop at home. Some of these boats are beautiful models; but as they have no keel, and rather sharp bows, they are only fitted to sail with the wind dead aft. These crafts are made from suitably-sized trunks, which are opened by fire. The trunk forms the body of the boat, and planks are nailed on to make the gunwale.

The prolonged absence of heads of families exposes the females to temptations which their education and premature marriages perhaps do not fit them to resist. Chastity is, however, a more common virue than, under such a condition of society, might have been expected. One of the reasons undoubtedly is, that, although perhaps as jealous as any Indian husband can be, the Malay does not immure his wife, or deny her the privilege of going abroad, and holding conversation with the male sex. But if thus tolerant, he feels, nevertheless, in a keener degree the abuse of his indulgence; and frequently, when a Malay becomes "a victim to misplaced confidence," he resents the insult by homicide. The respectable Malay is highly sensitive to trivial and even unpremeditated insult; such, for instance, as brushing by one, and turning round, is considered by Malays as a gross injury. He fancies that *no law* can compensate for the injury his honor has sustained. His feelings are, therefore, apt to lead him, not merely to criminal, but absurdly-ridiculous excesses. Thus, it has sometimes happened, that a Malayan couple, having been formally divorced by mutual consent, confirmed by order of the Tuan Kaley, or native ecclesiastical judge, and the woman having married another man, the first husband has murdered both parties. In such case, it is probable that suspicions of her former infidelity were confirmed. Under Malayan rule, murder, unless coupled with treason, has its expiatory price, and can, without much danger, be perpetrated with impunity by a rich man.

Ere dismissing the subject of rice cultivation, I would remark, that in Java there are three different modes of planting rice. Sawah is the name given to rice fields which can be artificially irrigated. Tipar, or Tagal, are elevated, but level grounds; and Gagal, or Lading, are cleared forest lands. The two last only yield one crop a year. A second crop may be obtained from the Sawah, which then most commonly consists of Katchang, or pea-nuts, from which an oil is extracted; in Kapas, or fine cotton, or in Ubie, a kind of potatoe. TEMMINCK (*Coup d'œil Genéral sur les Possessions Neerlandaises dans l'Inde Archipélagique*, an invaluable work) states that the exportation of rice from the island of Java in 1840, amounted to 136,626,250 pounds. In 1848, owing to the failure of the Java rice crop, it proved profitable to import rice from Arracan into Batavia and Sourabaya.

The Malays of the Straits and Peninsula are all followers of the Arabian Prophet. They are of the Soonnie, or orthodox sect, holding to their faith with tenacity—more, perhaps, the result of habit and education than of spiritual conviction. There is not one single instance on record of a Malay Mohammedan having been christianized; though in the northern part of the Peninsula, some of them have relapsed into their former faith of Boodhism. They accept, readily, Malayan versions of the Bible, (Dutch translation,) considering it a very instructive book, but spoiled by Nazarene interpolations. The Koran among them superseding all former written revelation, portions of the Bible to them are only valuable as showing what were the Almighty's laws prior to Mohammed's mission upon earth. Divested as their minds are of the severe and repulsive bigotry which characterizes the Moslems of continental India, and, indeed, of most countries in Asia west of Hindostan, the Malays are better fitted than are their co-religionists to mingle in commercial and social intercourse with people of different persuasions. Malays of education have often told me, that the professors of other creeds than theirs are not, in the life hereafter, thrust completely beyond the pale of salvation, although none but good Mohammedans will ever be introduced to the celestial Houris; observing, that a man cannot sin, save when he disobeys the injunctions of his own particular faith. They believe, however, in the ascent of Mohammed on a dromedary, with a peacock's feather in its tail, as firmly as Christians in the miracles of the Old Testament.

To the credit of Malayan Mohammedans it must be admitted, that they are rarely, if ever, seen under the debasing effects of ardent spirits, and very seldom, indeed, of opium; although, in the Indian Archipelago, a man can get serenely drunk for an outlay of about five cents.

The Mohammedans from continental India, being She-ites, or followers of Ali, are looked upon by the Malays with disgust, fully equal to that which they entertain for Chinese and Hindoo worshipers. The She-ites have annual processions, notwithstanding, in the Straits Settlements, in commemoration of the deaths of Hassan and Hossein. During these days of mourning, they are in the habit of performing various acts of penance, such as being buried up to the chin in the ground for twenty-four hours. These devotees paint their faces white, and with fowl's blood make a red streak round the small portion of the neck that appears above the surface of the earth. This is done in memory of the decapitation of the two brothers. To the stranger, at first they look as if they had been beheaded, and their heads stuck on end on the ground, and it is only by a close approach that they attest their vitality by their goggling eyes. Another of their penances consists in sticking their wire skewers through the flesh, somewhat after the subjoined manner: From wrist to wrist, one, and another through each arm and cheek; whilst a fourth perforates the chin, tongue, and nose. Thus trussed up, the penitent stalks about, affording much edification to the spectators, and, no doubt, vast consolation to himself. In one case I saw in Singapore, where a young man was having this ornament arranged upon his person, no blood flowed from any of the punctures while they were being made,—perhaps on account of the skin being taken up by the fingers, and pinched very hard before the wires were thrust through.

Of all nations the Chinese keep the greatest number of holidays; and their prodigality, on such occasions, also far exceeds, in proportion to their pecuniary means, that of other people. The Chang-woa, or first day of the Peang-shin, or New Year, is a day of much rejoicing. At early dawn the Chinese open their doors, and let off large bundles of Pangp'hao, (crackers,) some of which are so large as to sound at a distance like musketry. They then go a round of visits to their friends, congratulate them on having reached another year in health, and wish them future prosperity. These visits occupy three days. The visitor does not give presents. He is entertained with sweetmeats and the delicacies of the season. These three days compose a species of carnival, when gaming, carousing, histrionic and other amusements, are the sole occupations of the people. The feasts are expensive, and the table groans with whole pigs and poultry, both roasted and boiled. The potations consist of Samsoo, a spirit extracted from rice, brandy, and other European liquors. The Chinese pledge each other in the European fashion, and the conversation is very animated. They rarely get drunk, and seem capable of carrying off as goodly a quantum of strong drink as any bon-vivant in our country.

On the 10th day of the first Chinese month the image of S'sayin-kong, a deified saint, is carried in procession from the house of the elder of the tribe, with whom it had remained during the past year, to the Kwan-yin-mean, or temple. Bands, to refined ears, of discordant and harsh music, accompany the effigy. Banners of red cloth, and huge lanterns painted with flowers, are carried in advance; whilst two umbrellas, striped red and yellow, with deep fringes, are held over the effigy. Cloth flags are likewise displayed, emblazoned with devices, amongst which is the horned alligator. When the effigy of Tokong has been deposited in the temple, another of Kwanteya, a deified mortal, is also conveyed thither with the same ceremonies.

On the 15th of this month, the household guardian spirits are honored by offerings of food and fruits. The animal propensities of the Chinese are strongly exemplified in the nature of their offerings, and their fanciful belief that spirits carry their grosser passions and capabilities for indulgence along with them to Sizzha, the Chinese hades. These household gods are portrayed by pictures or images; the latter are always the most conspicuous part of the house. The ceremonies conclude with the exhibition of painted lanterns, fire-works, and the invariable feast of good things; for in this particular the Chinaman is a counterpart of John Bull, and wisely considers that no affair can be successful without a dinner preceding or following it.

The temples on the night succeeding the above day, are thronged with persons of all ages, and both sexes: for the Chinese in the Straits Settlements do not immure their women. Pai or Pooee are external acts of adoration, performed before the images in the temples. These are generally repeated four times consecutively. In the first, the worshiper falls on his knees, and placing his hands flat on the ground, he touches the latter with his forehead. On the presentation of an offering of variously-colored tapers and huge red waxen candles and incense, the adorer entwines his fingers, then keeping the palm uppermost and open, he raises his hands, so joined, to his forehead, placing his elbows so as to perform the part of a segment of a circle. The priest, who is clothed in a flowing dress of red, black, white or flowered cotton cloth, continues during the time to recite passages from the Bali language, which are not a little changed by the Chinese pronunciation. A large gong is loudly struck at intervals, to call the attention of the Deity to what is wanted of him. Those Chinese who can afford it, and are strict followers of ancient usages, have portraits painted of their nearest relations. When any one of the latter happens to die, his or her picture is carefully locked up in the picture chest, where are also deposited the ancestral portraits. On New Year's Day the whole of these pictures are taken out of the chest, and hung along the walls for some days, while daily offerings are presented them of food, which, after remaining a short time on the table before the pictures, are consumed by the living members of the family.

On the 19th day of the second month, there is a procession with the image of Kwan-yin-nes, a celebrated spinster of old; and in honor of this her birthday, offerings are made to her of vegetables and sweetmeats, but no animal food, as she "couldn't abide it" when alive. In this month, also, the Chinese visit the tombs of their ancestors, a duty which by all classes is felt to be so imperative, that, to fulfill it, opulent Chinamen have been known to return to China from the Straits and Eastern Archipelago, at the risk of life and property, on account of the Mandarins "squeezee" processes. Slips of paper, having a patch of gold or silver leaf on them, are burned. They are intended to represent money, and in this instance they seem to have got the start of Europeans, whose notes are, it is to be apprehended, not cashable in Pluto's dominions even at a discount. This paper, which is not worth a cent in this present world, is intended to furnish the manes who are wandering in the Chinese hades with ample means for their subsistence. The Chinese believe that in the Yong-chaoo-Yase, or country of souls, gold and silver coin can be converted from this paper money back to its proper nature.

On the 23d of the 3d month, the Chinese propitiate and worship Ma-choo, a female divinity and protectress of sailors. Offerings of food are made to her, and expensive theatricals are exhibited, accompanied by excellent fireworks. The theatrical exhibitions are there made under a temporary house, which is open to the populace in front; who, as they pay nothing at the time for the amusement, are not supplied with any shelter from the weather. The women with their children sit in groups and circles, or in palanquins, and the men crowd about the space in front of the stage. One of the best of their fireworks is a box from two to three or four feet square. Within this are tiers of fireworks of almost every description. At the expiration of each tier, or small platform, a frame drops about a foot below the box, on which are exhibited in fire, puppets of men, animals, and Chinese characters, traced in flame.

On the 8th day of the 4th month, the Chinese hold a festival in honor of Foot-so or Bood'dha, in one of his incarnations. His image is carried in procession, and taken amongst the grain and other cultivations, to preserve such from insects and disease, for Bood'dha's distinctive attribute is humanity. The oblations are tea, wine and bread—nothing which had life is offered.

Quan-yin-nyeow, a female goddess, is worshiped on the 19th day of this month. The women are numerous at the celebration of this goddess's natal day, and the processions on this occasion are very lively, whilst the display of palanquin carriages adds to the gayness of the scene. The male worshipers of this beautiful spirit, when their veneration is sincere, wear round, flattish and slightly conical caps, made of rattans and other similar materials, with long flowing crests of horse-hair dyed red. The dress for the body is a long robe, the same as the ceremonial one. The deputation of Chinese residents that met Lord Dalhousie, present Governor-General of India, on his arrival at Singapore, in the early part of 1850, wore this style of dress when they waited on his lordship to offer their congratulations.

In the seventh month, the Chief of the Spirits, Toa-so, is adored. He is usually represented by a figure of about 20 feet in height. It is constructed of split bamboos; the whole is then covered with painted paper, so as to represent the human body, and then dressed as one would a gigantic doll. As night approaches, a table is set out for 30 or 40 persons, and viands and liquors are thereon laid for the use of Toa-so. Whole boiled pigs form a grand centre dish. When the ghostly guest has, it is supposed, satisfied his appetite from the contemplation of the luxuries displayed, a gong is sounded, and all the beggars of the place have a scramble for everything that may have been placed on the table, down to the plates and spoons sometimes. One night's entertainment for his saintship will often cost from two to three hundred dollars. The expenses attending this festival, and indeed of all the others, are disbursed out of their different religious funds, some of which are rich, being readily supported by voluntary contributions: for as these festivals resemble carnivals or saturnalia, the poorest Chinaman grudges not his mite, but looks forward to them as days of unfettered recreation and enjoyment. When sufficient honors have been paid to Toa-so, a chest made of paper is filled with articles of dress, also made of the same material, and a lighted match is applied to His Holiness and baggage, so that he may return to his celestial abode.

Tza-woa is the name of the 10th month, the third day of which is sacred to the memory of the great and good Cong-foot-zoo, our Confucius. All, pretending to learning, keep a picture of the sage in their house, and on the day in question present food and other offerings to it.

In an old dilapidated temple in the island of Pinang, which was made by a partly closing up of the entrance to a cave, formed by overhanging granite rocks, were sometime to be seen three painted wooden images. In the centre one was represented T'ho-tee-Pakong, who was a famous sage of old. He is now invoked by Chinese grain cultivators, and those who are obliged to reside temporarily in forests and wild places. He wears a flat bonnet, and is dressed in the Chinese costume. On his left sits the recording spirit, and on his right the avenger.

ART. II.—SOUTHERN WINES AND VINEYARDS.

[No persons have done more for our country in the vine business than Mr. Longworth, of Cincinnati, and Mr. Weller, of North Carolina, the author of the present paper, which he kindly furnishes us. We shall have a great deal to say of Mr. Longworth in our next, and of his admirable vineyards, the most extensive in America.]—Ed.

For upwards of twenty years the writer has experimented in the vineyard business and in making the best American wines, or wines accounted by the best judges, and by his patrons in various parts of the Union, better than European.

His vineyard of ten acres, and vineyard products, (fifty and sixty barrels annually,) are the largest now in the South, and are rapidly on the increase. His wines, according to quality and cost and trouble of making, command in market from one to six dollars per gallon, with twenty per cent. off by the cask; and at the same rate per bottle also, after adding cost of bottles, sealing, wiring, and labeling. Here the writer appends what he deems the most important hints to all American vintners; and states that, with the exception of a few gallons of wine occasionally made with shriveled or over mature grapes, by way of experiment, and no ingredientwhatever added to the juice, (experiment convinces him that in the *South*, at least, it is utterly impracticable thus to make wine as a profitable or desirable business,) he makes some of his best kinds of wines, as Madeira, Port, &c., by adding plenty of spirits, or sugar, or both, according to the wines intended as the result. For instance, as a third of spirits is put into the juice for making the best Eastern wines, (medicinally and otherwise) ere reaching our shores, so, for some of his, is added a like quantity of spirits, as advised by Mr. Longworth, our greatest Western vintner, in his Patent-Office letter of 1847. True it is, according to recent statements, that some wines are made in the Western vineyards, under Mr. Longworth's auspices, without any safe-keeping, enriching ingredients whatever added to the juice of the grape. But it is also true, by accompanying accounts, that such wines, like those made thus in France and other Eastern vineyards, are of a lower price, indicating so far as that is concerned an inferior quality; or, as we have reason to believe, more body and zest by said artificial ingredients being added, a higher price is commanded, when the merits are known, as for Madeira and Port. For instance, while the best Malaga sells at a dollar a gallon in this country, the best Madeira and Port, of one-third spirits, or of the strongest body by artificial help, sell for several dollars per gallon. Why not, then, do American vintners, and especially Southern ones, take this fact as a most significant hint for their operations in their wine-making business? But it is alleged by some, that wines made by artificial help to the grape juice are therefore less pure. And pray, what more pure things are there in physical nature than sugar and spirits, or say, saccharine and alcoholic principles? These principles enter into almost all vegetable creation as the pure, grand preservative ingredients. For instance, every grain of corn or wheat has more or less alcohol therein for its pure preservative, as developed by distillation. And since two of the chief constituent principles of all wine, (the definition of wine the world over being the "fermented juice of the grape," and therefore always alcoholic by fermentation, and as such, capable of intoxicating effect if intemperately used or abused, as set forth in the Bible,) being saccharine and alcoholic, is it not chemically absurd to allege that the same ingredients increased artificially, to add body, safe-keeping and strength, render the wine thus made impure? As if more of the purest ingredients of wine added artificially made any wine more impure! or, as if mere additions of constituent pure things, added to any things necessarily, or in any way, change the nature of such things for the *worse!* and as if adding spirits to foreign wines, so far from making them worse, made them better medicinally and otherwise, and adding the same ingredient to American wines made them worse!

Let the candid, with these suggestions before them, judge impartially for themselves, and not be imposed on by the absurd position of interested salesmen and others, as to foreign wines, in order to ruin or greatly injure the vineyard business, in the South at least, of our country.

For, it is a fact, and tested as such by long experience of others as well as the writer, that the Scuppernong grape, which outyields any grape in the world, as to fruit and juice, (as one vine covering a quarter acre yields five barrels of wine annually,) is so deficient in *quantity*, (I say *quantity*, for the *quality* is most excellent,) of saccharine and alcoholic principles, that without artificial help, by some ingredients, the wine will not keep, or be of any superior quality ere spoiling; and there is no help for this difficulty to any practical purpose by suffering the grapes to become extra ripe, or shriveled on the vines; for whenever ripe, most of the berries fall off by the first wind or storm of any violence; and so deficient is the juice of the quantity of necessary wine ingredients, at the common ripeness of the grapes, that the juice is comparatively *insipid*, as tried by hundreds of the writer's guests tasting it, as running from the presses in vintage seasons. But by adding a sufficiency of double-refined loaf sugar, as an ingredient most congenial to its own exquisite taste in quality, it makes a *most delightful beverage.* And strange as the fact may appear to some mere theorists, the very Scuppernong grapes of the same degree of ripeness as those affording the comparatively weak or deficient quantity and quality for beverage or wine, are the *most delightful fruit*, and are preferred by a vast majority of the writer's guests or visitors in vintage time, to any of about two hundred other kinds in his vineyard, including the Catawba, Isabella, and other most favorite natives in our country, both North and South.

I am most credibly informed that a Spaniard, of reputation as a European vintner, experimented pretty largely on Scuppernong Island, (originating the name of this grape,) as to the qualities of the Scuppernong grape for wine, and that he pronounced it unfit or deficient in quantity and quality of juice to make wine without artificial help; or rather, I would say, in his *ignorance* and *prejudice*, he *condemned* the grape for wine making. He as inconsistently pronounced such condemnation as if he had for like reasons condemned the grapes of the *Madeira Island*, or *those* of Oporto, because one-third of spirits was necessary to develope those grapes into their most excellent wine qualities.

As to spirits for the safe keeping and duly enriching ingredients to Scuppernong juice, from ample experience and most reliable information, I consider a fourth the *least safe* quantity, or one gallon to three of juice; and as to sugar, two pounds per gallon of juice; though a third of spirits and three pounds of sugar is safer and better every way.

Some years since, traveling through Franklin county, (N. C.,) I called at a celebrated Scuppernong vineyard, and found by tasting and information, that of about 17 barrels of Scuppernong wine made the past vintage, every one of them had a taste slightly acid. And on inquiring I found that, owing to a deficiency of brandy on hand, one-fifth only had been added in making the wine. True; in such cases the wine may be recovered by adding more brandy, or some sugar, or both. But it is also true that the wine is not quite as good in such cases, as if the requisite or safe quantity had been added at first.

Some ten years since I was written to from Columbia, South Carolina, by a Frenchman, that if I had any partly spoiled or acid wine, he would come and change it to good for a proper compensation. I declined the proffer, having no confidence in the foreigner.

Months after I learned, from a most respectable gentleman from the place, that the *bad wine* the Frenchman made apparently *good*, had changed to become worse than before, in a few weeks. I concluded some impure or deleterious ingredient of an evanescent effect had been used. I concluded also I could beat the Frenchman by making a permanent change through pure ingredients added: and into some wine then on hand I put sugar and spirits, as much as needed to recover it, and the result was even beyond expectation. It has been alleged (from a source, however, of no reliance) that grapes in the far South more abound in saccharine and alcoholic properties, and therefore the juice less needs artificial help to make wine. But even if that is a fact, another fact is, that the further south the warmer the weather is in vintage time, saying nothing of the less chance of deep cellars to help to prevent the wine running into the acetous fermentation. In the North, or Ohio, not only the Catawba will stick on the cluster till fully or extra ripe, but colder weather and the advantage of deep cellars are enjoyed. But I opine, no matter how cold the climate, or how deep the cellars, that the Scuppernong juice, if enjoying these advantages, would not keep without *artificial* help.

Herbemont's Madeira grapes in Columbia, South Carolina, hang on the vines, if escaping the rot, as long as desired after being ripe; but with one pound of sugar per gallon, more than half the wine is apt to spoil by souring, (or, as I aver, by deficiency of safe-keeping ingredients,) as set forth from Mr. Guinard, in Mr. Longworth's Patent-Office letter of 1847. Now I fearlessly assert, that from my experience with this very grape in wine making, *three* pounds of sugar instead of *one* put into its *juice*, or *one-third* spirits, and the same pains being taken as by Mr. Guinard, would make a very good and far better wine than that made with the use of the *meagre one pound* of sugar per gallon. And when it is remembered that the spirit adds its own bulk, and the sugar half thereof, to the quantity or volume of the wine, the argument is greatly enforced against *stinginess* of safe-keeping, enriching ingredients, in making Scuppernong wine. And I I may say the same of the making of any American wine from any kind of grape.

Wishing to gain the best intelligence in our country on wine-making, besides reading the treatises extant thereon, I have received by solicitation and otherwise numerous receipts from the lower part of our state, for making the best Scuppernong wine. And it is remarkable, that not one correspondent from the region and origin of this most famous American grape, gives any process for making this wine without either sugar or spirits added; though most of them differ as to the quantity necessary, of either or both, to make and safely keep the wine. But as to the most exquisite taste of the Scuppernong wine, double-refined sugar, doubtless, is best to secure that, because coming nearest to the most delightful taste of the Scuppernong grape.

The highest praise of any wine is, that its zest is like that of the grapes of which it is made.

A most eminent vintner from Germany first suggested the double-refined sugar for making the most excellent Scuppernong wine. And as soon as I tried it, I found he was right, or chemically correct.

I must here relate a fact, at the danger of appearing vain to some, viz: I was written to, from the lower part of our state, to come down, (about eighty miles,) and instruct how to make the highly reputed best Scuppernong wines; and was offered $4 a day from starting to returning. And I here append the result of my mission, as follows, viz:

The mashing machine, woolen blankets to strain with, and sugars and spirits being all ready as directed by letter, I made, as samples, a barrel of each of the following kinds of Scuppernong wine, or cordial, viz:

1. Scuppernong, (proper, or no appellative name,) at $1 per gallon; made with one-third brandy.

2. Scuppernong champagne, at $2 per gallon; made with one-fourth brandy, and one pound of double-refined sugar per gallon.

3. Scuppernong Madeira, (a white or colorless wine,) at $3 per gallon; made with three pounds per gallon of double-refined sugar.

4. Scuppernong hock (of a beautiful red color, by fermenting one bushel of purple Scuppernong with seven of the white,) at $4 per gallon; made with three pounds of double-refined sugar per gallon, and peculiar pains in racking, &c.

5. Scuppernong perfect love cordial, $10 per gallon; made with one-third brandy, and two pounds of double-refined sugar per gallon.

I append here a kind which I make at my premises, and not convenient to make there, because of the very short time I had to stay on account of the need of my presence at my own vintage, viz:

6. Purest Scuppernong, $6 per gallon. One variety of this kind is made with a third of Scuppernong brandy, and another with Scuppernong syrup.

The brandy is from distillation of Scuppernong juice soured. And the syrup is from the sweet juice reduced by boiling. Twenty per cent. or more off the price per gallon when sold by barrel or cask.

A most respectable lawyer, Joseph S. Cannon, Esq., of Hertford, Perquimans county, wrote to me, and I operated in wine-making with his brother, Mr. James J. Cannon, upper part of Chowan county, near the river of that name, (Post-Office, "Ballard's Bridge.") I add here, that Mr. Cannon bought in most of his grapes, or about 100 bushels, ere I left, and expected 100 more, engaged to complete his vintage.

A number of small Scuppernong vineyards are scattered through different regions of the lower part of North Carolina. The owners sell a part of their grapes, and a part they convert into wine. Cart-loads of grapes, I learn, were carried from Mr. Cannon's neighborhood to Norfolk, (60 miles distant,) and some, bought there, were shipped to Baltimore, and elsewhere. So great is the quantity sold at Norfolk, from the adjoining country, that often there are 30 cart-loads a day there, I was told, in vintage time. So much appreciated is this grape for table fruit, preserving and kindred purposes, that all taken found a ready market. I sell quantities sent for to my vineyard, from various distances, at 50 cents to 30 cents per gallon, according to time of the vintage, or pains in gathering, and quantity taken at a time; but the price at Norfolk, I learned, was much lower —or sometimes two dollars a bushel. And so esteemed are the Scuppernong grapes here, that for the time of ripening, or about two months, the berries ripening in succession, most guests pay an entrance fee into the vineyard of a quarter of a dollar each, and on pic-nic days, sometimes a hundred at a time, prefer this to all other grapes. A gentleman near Warrenton, 20 miles west, from a small Scuppernong vineyard, made, clear, last vintage, a hundred dollars, by selling grapes in that town. Seeing, then, the superior excellence of this grape in every way (except in *quantity*, not *quality*, of *saccharine* and *alcoholic properties*,) it is no marvel that its culture is rapidly extending over all the South,—hundreds of the rooted vines annually sell at from 20 to 25 dollars per hundred. I distribute them to distant places South, from my nursery, and good Scuppernong wine is increasing in reputation and circulation every year. And as to Southern and Western vineyards: "*Ephraim* need not envy *Judah*, nor *Judah Ephraim*." But let all work on harmoniously, to free our country from so many annual *millions* of *foreign dependence* for wines, *not so good* as *may be made* in *our midst* by *intelligence* and *skill*. Throughout the *South*, by putting one-third *spirits* to *any sort* of *grape-juice*, (but especially the *Scuppernong*, according to Mr. Longworth's advice,) an excellent wine may be made, worth a dollar a gallon. And, in the West, or North, by the same help, or even without any *artificial aid* to the juice, in *some cases*, or with *some kinds* of *grapes*, a wine may be made of equal excellence and value. And as to any wines superior, or of higher price, because of more cost and trouble, why that is a matter of taste and choice.

BRINKLEYVILLE, HALIFAX COUNTY, N. CAROLINA,
December 24*th*, 1851.

ART. III.—PENNSYLVANIA.*

ITS EARLY HISTORY, AND PROGRESS IN POPULATION, COMMERCE, TRADE, MANUFACTURES, AGRICULTURE, EDUCATION, &C.

IN previous numbers of the Review our sketches of the states of the Union have been confined to those of the South and West. We now turn to the North, with the design of continuing these sketches, until we have passed over the entire Union of thirty-one states. We commence with Pennsylvania, as being the first great state that presents itself on crossing the line of Mason and Dixon, the artificial boundary which separates the northern from the southern states.

Pennsylvania is the only state in the Union which bears, and transmits to future ages, the name of a private individual. It is known that the natural modesty of William Penn earnestly declined the honor of having his name latinized into that of a great American province; but Charles II., of England, insisted upon Pennsylvania, as being the most beautiful and appropriate name that could then be devised. It must be admitted, however, that the territory in question has now lost much of the sylvan character that it must have possessed in the days of Charles II. However great Penn's obligations may have been to the "merry monarch," for the honor conveyed in the name Pennsylvania, it is quite certain, that the soil of the territory ceded to Penn, by Charles II., was far from being a gift.

William Penn inherited from his father, Admiral Penn, who acquired some distinction as commander of the English fleet at the conquest of Jamaica, and in the subsequent war with the Dutch, a large fortune, to which he added remarkable abilities, both natural and acquired. His education, however, was somewhat irregular, owing to circumstances resulting from his stubborn inflexibility of purpose in all things, and particularly in regard to his religious principles. While a student at Oxford he imbibed the principles of the Quakers, and he is said to have been expelled from the University "because he would persist in pulling from the backs of his fellow students those popish and unnecessary badges, their gowns."

Among other things which Penn inherited from his father—and this was, in the end, his greatest inheritance—was a claim against the government, of £16,000, of which the Admiral had been plundered at the shutting up of the Exchequer. This claim, for which there was little hope of ever getting anything, (as Charles II. was notoriously extravagant, profligate, always in want of money, and, like all such men and monarchs, slow in paying debts,) was the real cause of Penn's coming to America, though the reiterated persecutions and imprisonments to which his peculiar religious notions exposed him, may have had some influence. Penn, as a last chance of getting anything for his claim, proposed to accept a grant of American territory, which was at that time very abundant, and not particularly valuable. To obtain, however, even such a liquidation of the claim as this, required some tact and exertion.

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* The series which we have been publishing of the states of the Union, already includes Massachusetts, Maryland, Virginia, North Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Texas, Mississippi, Louisiana, Kentucky, Missouri, etc. We shall continue with the others, and when the census of 1850 is published, incorporate its material under the appropriate heads.

Penn was fortunate in having the support of the Duke of York, who had always been the particular friend of the late Admiral, his father, and who was always an admirer of the principles of non-resistance, though not the quakerism, of the son. William Penn himself, though mild, gentle, and anti-bellicose, was far from unskilful, as his biographers tell us, in the arts of a courtier, which he practiced, in the present case, with double energy and effect in his guise of drab-colored Quaker plainness. After the usual vexations and delays of all suitors for government favor or justice, he finally succeeded, and on the 4th of March, 1681, in the thirty-seventh year of his age, was constituted, by a royal charter, "sovereign of a great American province called Pennsylvania." The charter created him "true and absolute lord" of Pennsylvania, with property in the soil, and ample powers of government, with the exception, that "the advice and consent of the freemen of the province" were necessary to the enactment of laws. There were also some other exceptions which were common to all, or to the most of the other provinces.

At the time of Penn's receiving his charter there were already within the limits of Pennsylvania quite a number of settlements. At the mouth of the Schuylkill dwelt a large number of Swedes and Dutch, and the English had settled along the west bank of the Delaware, under grants from the Governors of New-York.

Pennsylvania was colonized by the Swedes nearly forty years before William Penn received his grant of the territory from Charles II. As early as 1643, the Swedes had erected a fort on the island of Tinicum, in the Delaware river, a few miles below Philadelphia; and this island also was chosen by their governor, John Printz, as the place of his residence. The first Swedish settlement in America was that formed by the colony sent out by Gustavus Adolphus, king of Sweden, in 1638, on Christiana Creek, near Wilmington. From this place, in order to preserve their ascendency over the Dutch, who were jealous of them, and who looked upon them as intruders, they had extended their settlements in various directions, until finally the whole territory occupied by them extended from Cape Henlopen to the falls of the Delaware, opposite Trenton, and to this tract of country they gave the name of New Sweden.

The first work of Penn was to conciliate the Swedes. Accordingly he commenced by sending among them the royal proclamation, announcing the recent grant to him, along with a proclamation of his own, in which he assured his new subjects that they should "live free under laws of their own making." Penn's object in coming to America was not gain or power altogether, for his ambition did not stop at such objects. He had a higher and nobler aim—that of opening an asylum in the New World, where those deprived of civil and religious liberty in the Old might find a peaceful home.

To induce emigration, he published a flattering account of the province, and offered to sell lands to settlers at the rate of one hundred acres for $10.* Three ships filled with emigrants, mostly Quakers, left England for America the same year in which the charter was granted, 1681. The first vessel took out William Markham, as agent, proprietor, and deputy-governor. Only one of these vessels arrived safe, one having been blown off to the West Indies, and another was frozen up in the Delaware. Markham carried out with himself three commissioners, together with a plan of a city which Penn proposed to build, and a letter of friendship from Penn to the Indians, whom he addressed as "brethren."

In the following year, 1682, Penn drew up what he called a "Frame of Government" and a code of laws, which were to be submitted to the colonists for their approval. His "Frame of Government" Penn pronounced "extraordinary," because of the "matter of liberty and privilege" which it contained; and because, he further states, of its leaving to himself and his successors "no power of doing mischief—that the will of one man may not hinder the good of the whole country." By this "frame" or constitution of Penn, the executive authority and the proposal of all laws were to be vested in a council of 72 persons, elected by freemen for three years, and one-third of them to go out of office annually. The proprietary or his deputy was to preside over this council, and have a triple vote. All laws passed by this council were to be submitted to an assembly of from 200 to 500 members, chosen by the people. At first the entire body of freemen composed this assembly.

Penn also obtained from the Duke of York, who claimed some territories on the west bank of the Delaware, a quit-claim to Pennsylvania, and a grant of a circle of territory of 12 miles around Newcastle, together with all the territory now embraced in the State of Delaware. Having made these arrangements, he set sail from England in September, 1682, with 100 emigrants. Twenty-three other ships followed him in the same year, and all arrived safely. Penn landed at Newcastle with only seventy of his emigrants, 30 having died of small-pox on the passage. The number of people then in Pennsylvania was between two and three thousand—all, as Penn says, "a plain, stout, industrious people," and the land abounding in all that "an Abraham, Isaac, and Jacob, would be well contented with." The first business of Penn after his arrival was to call together the members of the First Assembly of the province. Instead of an attendance of the entire body of the freemen of the different counties, as Penn's "Frame of Government" proposed, there came only 72 delegates from the people of the entire province, bearing a petition to Penn that they might be considered as constituting both council and assembly. The reasons assigned for this entire disregard of the "Frame of Government" were "the fewness of the people, their inability in estate, and unskilfulness in matters of government." Penn, therefore, to meet these difficulties, remodeled his "Frame of Government," so that the assembly was to consist of 36 members only; and the council, of three members from each county; also he himself, or his deputy, when presiding, was no longer restricted to a triple vote, as before.

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* The lands were, however, subject to a perpetual quit-rent of about 2½ mills on each acre; and the purchasers were also to hold lots in a city to be laid out.

Several enactments were made. One naturalized the Dutch and Swedish settlers; another made every freeholder and tax-payer a freeman, with the right of voting and holding office; "faith in Christ," though, was an indispensable qualification. Toleration was extended to all who believed in the existence of God, whom they were allowed to worship after their own manner, except that none were allowed to labor on the Sabbath. This promised toleration, however, was not extended to the Roman Catholics, at least in the early days of the colony.*

The offences expressly prohibited and severely punished, were, "drinking healths, prizes, stage-plays, cards, dice, May-games, masques, revels." The criminal code was mild, murder being the only crime punishable with death. County courts were established for the administration of justice, with trial by jury. The right of primogeniture was only partially abrogated, the oldest son being allowed, as in New-England, a double share of all his father's lands.

All the laws regarding property, crimes, and the rights of citizens, comprised a code, called the "Great Law;" and there was a special provision, that the substance of all the laws should be taught in all the schools—an idea that it would be well to adopt at the present day. A knowledge of the laws of our own country is indispensable, and in all of our schools a correct idea of the substance of them might, and ought to be imparted to the pupils. The idea that a pupil cannot learn anything about laws except in a law-school, is only ridiculous. Pupils are often inquisitive regarding the law on various subjects, and they are generally put off, by being told that when they are a little older they can study law. William Penn's idea of this matter, in 1682, was the correct one, and we would like to see it adopted at the present day. It would be a most salutary reform in our schools if William Penn's idea could be adopted.

After thus establishing the government and laws of the province, Penn hastened to Newcastle to confer with Lord Baltimore regarding the southern boundary of Pennsylvania. Baltimore's charter extended to the 40th degree of north latitude, while that of Penn fixed, as the southern boundary of Pennsylvania, a line running due west from a point on the Delaware, 12 miles above Newcastle, which point was supposed to be about the 40th parallel. Astronomical observations taken by the two parties proved that the 40th parallel crossed the Delaware above the junction of the Schuylkill, thus rendering the two charters irreconcilable. The dispute between Penn and Baltimore resulted in a downright quarrel, which was not settled during the lifetime of either party. Penn's great desire was to acquire for Pennsylvania a portion of Chesapeake bay.

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* See Hildreth's Hist. of U. S., p. 68.

Soon after his visit to Lord Baltimore, at Newcastle, Penn held his famous interview with the Indians, under the great elm of Shakamaxon, commemorated by the pencil of West. The spot is now the site of Kensington, one of the suburbs of Philadelphia Here the Chiefs of the Delawares, with their armed warriors, met Penn and his unarmed associates, the latter all clad in the simple Quaker garb, which the simple Indians regarded as the habiliments of peace. Penn gave them the stipulated price for their lands, and established with them peace and friendship.

A few months after, in 1683, Penn purchased of the Swedes a tract of land at the confluence of the Delaware and Schuylkill, disregarding entirely the pretensions of Lord Baltimore, and immediately proceeded to lay out the city of Philadelphia. New settlers from England soon arrived, and at the end of the year 82 houses were erected. Many of the first settlers at Philadelphia dwelt in caves dug in the banks of the Delaware, until houses could be built.

During the year 1683, Penn convoked the Assembly of the province of Philadelphia. It provided for a revenue of £2,000, for the expenses of the government in part, to be raised by a tax on spirits. It also established an orphan's court, and appointed three officers in each county, called "peacemakers," to settle disputes and prevent law suits. He caused a large mansion-house to be erected for his residence, on the banks of the Delaware, opposite Burlington, some 20 miles above Philadelphia.

In August, 1684, Penn left for England, appointing five commissioners of the provincial council as a provincial court, with Nicholas Moore for chief-justice. This was the supreme court of law. The executive administration was committed to the council, of which Thomas Lloyd was appointed president. At Penn's departure, the province contained 20 settled townships, and 7,000 inhabitants, of which 2,000 were in the city of Philadelphia. English quaker emigrants, and also some Dutch and German quakers, converts made by Penn and Barclay on the continent, continued to arrive. It was by a party of German quakers that Germantown was settled.

During Penn's absence in England, violent dissensions arose between the council and the assembly; the latter, contrary to the "Frame of Government," assumed the right of suggesting laws, a right expressly given to the governor and council alone. The assembly strove constantly to enlarge its powers, and resorted to the most violent measures. Moore, the chief-justice, and also a member of the assembly, was expelled from it for opposing its usurpations, and impeached for arbitrary conduct in office; and his secretary also was imprisoned for refusing to give up the records. To put an end to these difficulties, Penn intrusted the executive authority to five commissioners, of whom Moore and Lloyd were two, the latter being the president. Lloyd, it seems, sowed dissensions among the colonists, and got them to believe that Penn had enriched himself at their expense. Penn denied the charge, and complained of the conduct of the assembly and of Lloyd, who finally resigned his office. Penn then appointed John Blackwell as lieutenant-governor of the province, with all the executive authority. Blackwell was very unpopular, and a year of violent discords followed. To restore peace, Penn placed the executive authority in the hands of the council again. (February, 1790.)

In 1687, a printing-press, the third in America, was set up at Philadelphia. In 1689, Penn established a public high-school, with a charter. In the same year, James II., Penn's great patron and firm friend, was driven from his throne; and Penn was twice arrested, in England, on a charge of treasonable correspondence with the fugitive king, but was discharged for want of proof. He now again began to think of returning to America, and of building a new city on the banks of the Susquehanna.

In 1691, Penn was again accused, and compelled to keep himself concealed. In 1692, his provincial government was taken from him, and transferred to Governor Fletcher, of New-York, who, in 1693, united Pennsylvania and Delaware, and extended his authority over both. In 1694, the suspicions against Penn being removed, Pennsylvania was restored to him, with all his rights. The chief instigator of the movements against Penn, which led to the depriving him of his provincial government, was one George Keith, a Scotch Quaker, who renounced his Quakerism, embraced the Church of England, and commenced a violent opposition against his former Quaker friends. Besides declaring Quakerism inconsistent with the exercise of political authority, he also preached abolition doctrines in the streets of Philadelphia, declaring that negro slavery was inconsistent with the principles of good government. Bradford, the only printer then in Pennsylvania, was called to an account for giving countenance to the movements of Keith; and to escape further difficulties, after obtaining his discharge, he removed his press and types to New-York city—the first printing-press there erected. Keith went to England soon after, (1692,) and by his representations induced the Privy Council to deprive Penn of his government.

Penn arrived a second time in America on the 10th of December, 1699, and found the colony in a state of disorder. The people were dissatisfied, and demanded further privileges. Philadelphia was then suffering greatly from the ravages of yellow fever. The province he found, however, greatly improved. Penn granted a new "Frame of Government" to the people, conferring on them greater powers. The council was abolished, and the power of legislation vested in the governor, and an assembly chosen annually. Voters were required to have a freehold of fifty acres of land, or $166 worth of personal property.

Nothing, however, would satisfy the people of the lower counties, now Delaware, but secession, or separation from Pennsylvania, which took place in 1703. The same governor, however, continued to preside over both, Delaware being separate only in legislation.

Penn, immediately after granting this last charter, returned (1701) to England, where a project had been started by the English ministers to suppress all the proprietary governments in America. It would be interesting to pursue the career of Penn in England; but we must be brief. Penn died in England in 1718, leaving his interests in Pennsylvania and Delaware to his sons, John, Thomas, and Richard Penn, who managed the provinces, principally by deputies, down to the time of the American Revolution, at which time the commonwealth of Pennsylvania purchased all their claims in the province for about half a million of dollars.

At the time of the death of Penn, the population of Pennsylvania was increasing, from emigration, at the rate of five or six thousand annually. The principal product of the province was wheat, which was exported in considerable quantities to Spain, Portugal, and the West Indies. Lands then sold at $45 per hundred acres, the proprietors always reserving for themselves, out of every purchase, a tenth part of the best lands, under the name of manors, as their private property. In 1741, Philadelphia contained 12,000 inhabitants.

Of the early commerce of Pennsylvania we know but little. The first trade was that carried on with the Indians in skins and furs, and the first product of the soil was tobacco, of which the province exported, in 1688–9, fourteen cargoes; but the competition of Maryland and Virginia caused the Pennsylvanians to abandon the cultivation of tobacco for that of wheat. The trade of the province was greatly injured by the war between England and France, continuing from 1688 to 1697. It caused much distress and poverty in the colony, in which money was so scarce, that in Philadelphia, it is said, "even pieces of tin and lead were current for small change."

From 1697 to 1776, the trade of Pennsylvania appears to have increased slowly. There was, however, in almost every year during this long period of seventy-nine years, a vast excess of imports over exports. During the wars between England, France and Spain, the depredations of privateers almost entirely interrupted the foreign trade of the province; besides, when these depredations were absent, the trade suffered from heavy exactions made on all vessels entering the Delaware. The exports in 1697 amounted to £3,347. We compile the following table, to give some idea of the progress of the trade of Pennsylvania from 1697 to 1774:

	Average Exports of Pennsylvania.			Average Imports of Pennsylvania.		
	£		£	£		£
1697 to 1707	1,477	to	5,220	2,997	to	18,529
1707 to 1717	38	to	5,193	5,881	to	22,505
1717 to 1727	4,057	to	12,823	15,992	to	42,209
1727 to 1737	7,434	to	21,919	29,799	to	61,513
1737 to 1747	7,446	to	17,158	11,918	to	91,010
1747 to 1757	3,832	to	38,527	75,330	to	245,644
1757 to 1767	14,190	to	39,170	168,426	to	707,998
1767 to 1774	26,111	to	69,611	134,881	to	728,744

During the period of 79 years, embraced in the above table, there were 29 years of war between England, France and Spain, together with an almost constant warfare carried on with the Indians of the western frontiers, which also embarrassed trade. From 1776 to 1783, Pennsylvania had but little or no foreign trade. It was then, however, not idle. Its citizens were among the foremost in the glorious struggle for independence, aiding it by their example, their money, and their personal services.

The first bank established in the United States was the Bank of Pennsylvania, opened at Philadelphia on the 17th of July, 1780, with a capital of £300,000—its special object being to supply the American army with provisions. This bank continued until the Bank of North America went into operation in 1782, which latter continued until the United States Bank commenced operations in 1791. Paper money, however, was first manufactured in Pennsylvania, in the year 1722, under Governor Keith. A "paper money loan system" was invented by him, and loan offices were established in every county. Bills to the amount of $150,000 were issued in 1723. In 1730, the money was found to be so much depreciated, that further issues were suspended.

At the close of the Revolutionary War, in 1783, the trade of the colonies revived. Commercial relations were entered into with most of the European nations, and the resources of the country began a rapid development. The wars commenced by France, in 1792, with the other European powers, and which were continued till the abdication of Napoleon, in 1814, affected our commerce considerably. Our foreign trade flourished beyond all precedent, and large fortunes were made by hundreds of our citizens, in consequence. Pennsylvania shared largely in this prosperity. Large importations were made from China and India into Philadelphia for re-exportation to European markets. Our ships enjoyed the carrying trade of the world. The population of Philadelphia in 1790 was 42,000.

The following table shows the progress of the foreign trade of Pennsylvania, from 1791 to 1850:—

	Exports.	Imports.		Exports.	Imports.
1791	$3,436,093	——	1820	5,743,549	——
1792	3,820,662	——	1821	7,391,767	8,158,922
1793	6,958,836	——	1822	9,047,802	11,874,170
1794	6,643,092	——	1823	9,617,192	13,696,770
1795	11,518,260	——	1824	9,364,893	11,865.531
1796	17,513,866	——	1825	11,269,981	15,041,797
1797	11,446,291	——	1826	8,331,722	13,551,779
1798	8,915,463	——	1827	7,575,833	11,212,935
1799	12,431,967	——	1828	6,051,480	12,884,408
1800	11,949,679	——	1829	4,089,935	10.100,152
1801	17,438,193	——	1830	4,291,793	8,702,122
1802	12,677,475	——	1831	5,513,713	12,124,083
1803	7,525,710	——	1832	3,516,066	10,678,358
1804	11,030,157	——	1833	4,078,951	10,451,250
1805	13,762.252	——	1834	3,989,746	10,479,268
1806	17,574,712	——	1835	3,739,275	12,389,937
1867	16,864,744	——	1836	3,971,555	15,068,233
1808	4,013,330	——	1837	3,841,599	11,680,111
1809	9,049,241	——	1838	3,477,151	9,360,371
1810	10,993,398	——	1839	5,299,415	15,050,715
1811	9,560,117	——	1840	6,820,145	8,464,882
1812	5,973,750	——	1841	5,152,501	10,346,698
1813	3,577,117	——	1842	3,776,727	7,385,858
1814	....	——	1843	2,071,945	2,760,630
1815	4,593,919	——	1844	3.535,256	7,219,267
1816	7,196,246	——	1845	3,574,363	8,159,227
1817	8,735,592	——	1850	4,501,606	12,066,154
1818	8,759,402	——	1851	[Not yet published.]	
1819	6,293,788	——			

We shall continue this paper under the heads of population, mineral resources, manufactures, commerce, internal improvements, banks, finances, judiciary, schools and colleges, &c., bringing each down to the present time.

Population.—The following table will show the progressive movement of the population of Pennsylvania, from 1790 to 1850:—

Date of Census.	Total Population.	Decennial increase.	
1790	434,373	—	—
1800	602,365	167,992	38·6 per cent.
1810	810,091	207,726	34·4 "
1820	1,049,458	239,367	29·5 "
1830	1,348,233	298,775	28·4 "
1840	1,724,033	375,800	27·8 "
1850	2,314,897	590,864	34·2 "

The following is the population of the principal cities of Pennsylvania, for 1850:

Philadelphia,	408,815	Pittsburg,	50,519
Reading,	15,748	Alleghany,	21,262
Lancaster,	12,369		

We omit all places whose population is less than 10,000. The area of Pennsylvania, in square miles, is 46,000, giving a population of 50.25 to the square mile.

Mineral Resources.—The mineral wealth of Pennsylvania is very great, consisting of an inexhaustible supply of coal, iron and salt. Its immense coal regions form its most interesting and important mineral feature. *Bituminous* coal, of an excellent quality, is found almost everywhere in the state, west of the Alleghany mountains, and in the south part of the state, east of the mountains. The *anthracite* coal region, with some few exceptions, is bounded on the north-west by the north branch of the Susquehanna, extending in a north-east direction over 60 miles, and divided into the southern, middle and northern coal-fields. The great deposits of anthracite coal, in Pennsylvania, have an area of about 975 square miles, or 624,000 acres. The deposits in some places are from 50 to 60 feet thick. The southern anthracite coal-basin of Pennsylvania is 60 miles long by two broad, with an aggregate thickness of 100 feet. Indeed, 30 out of the 54 counties of the state, are in whole, or in part, based upon coal. The thickest coal deposits in England are only 30 feet thick.* The bituminous coal region of Pennsylvania has an area of 21,000 square miles, or 13,440,000 acres.

The coal mines of Pennsylvania are a source of inexhaustible wealth. They are more valuable than the gold mines of California; and if Pennsylvania had nothing else, her coal mines alone would make her rich. The working of these mines may be dated from 1820. The quantity dug and sent to market since that time amounts to 28,998,286 tons. The progress made in the working of these mines is shown by the following statement: There were dug,

In 1820,	365 tons.
" 1825,	34,896 "
" 1830,	174,734 "
" 1835,	575,103 "
" 1840,	867,045 "
" 1845,	2,002,877 "
" 1850,	3,371,255 "

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* Hitchcock's Geology, p. 62.

The business may be considered as still in its infancy. What will be the demand for coal from those mines, in 20 years from this time, when it is probable that there will be at least 20 steam vessels consuming coal to one now? Last year, the coal taken from the mines of Pennsylvania was sold for $16,000,000.

Next to coal stands *iron* among the mineral products of Pennsylvania. Pennsylvania now produces as much iron as did the whole of Great Britain, in 1820, and during the last ten years the quantity of Pennsylvania iron has doubled. Pennsylvania now produces as much iron as France; more than Russia and Sweden united, and more than all Germany.* To have some idea of the abundance of iron in Pennsylvania, we have only to consider the fact that, of the 62 counties of that state, 45 contain iron works, and the remaining 17 abound in iron and coal. It is estimated that Pennsylvania makes one-half of all the iron produced in the United States. The total number of iron works of all kinds in the state is 504; the capital invested in lands, buildings and machinery, is $20,502,076; the number of men employed, 30,103, and the number of horses, 13,562. The fuel used by all these works cost, in 1847, $4,879,884. One and a-half millions of cords of wood are consumed annually by these works, thus clearing of timber, 37,000 acres yearly, or 48 square miles. It is estimated that this does not exceed one-fourth the ability of the state to furnish wood annually for ever.

As the subject of iron manufactures in Pennsylvania is at this present time a matter of much interest, the iron manufacturers of that state making complaint of a want of adequate protection from the general government, and ascribing all their failures to this cause alone, we give the following table, showing the number of iron works that have been built in the state since 1840, and the number that have failed since that date. It will show the progress of the iron manufacturing business in Pennsylvania during the last 10 years:

	Built.	Failed.		Built.	Failed.
1840	135	6	1846	53	4
1841	6	2	1847	25	24
1842	20	20	1848	17	37
1843	7	7	1849	10	41
1844	21	11	1850	7	22
1845	30	3	1851		..

The amount of iron manufactured in Pennsylvania since 1847, is as follows:

1847	389,350 tons.
1849	253,370 "
1850	198,813 "
1851	150,000 "

From this, it appears, that the manufacture has diminished more than 50 per cent. during the last three years.

Besides iron, there is in Pennsylvania an extensive *copper* and *lead* formation, recently discovered near the Schuylkill River, about 20 miles from Philadelphia. These mines have been successfully worked during the past year. The copper ore yields 20 per cent. of pure copper, and the lead ore, 75 per cent. of pure lead. With the lead ore, there is also found silver ore, yielding silver about $35 to the ton. These mines of copper, silver and lead, are very promising.

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* See Memorial of Pennsylvania Iron Manufacturers to Congress, 1849.

Manufactures.—As the returns of the last U. S. census are not yet published in full, we cannot give a complete account of the manufactures of Pennsylvania. Mr. Kennedy, superintendent of the census, at Washington, has furnished only a general report of the facts relating to a few of the most important manufactures, from which we compile the following table, showing the present state of some of the more important manufactures of Pennsylvania:

MANUFACTURES OF PENNSYLVANIA, 1850.

	Capital invested.	Value of products.	Hands employed.
Cotton goods	$4,528.925	$5,322,262	7,663
Woolen goods	3,005.064	5,321.866	5,726
Pig iron	8,570,425	6,071,513	9,294
Iron castings	3,422,924	5,354,881	4,783

The principal manufacturing places of Pennsylvania are Pittsburg and Philadelphia. Of the first of these cities, we can give the state of manufactures at the present time with sufficient accuracy. There are in Pittsburg 13 rolling mills, employing 2,500 hands, and a capital of $5,000,000. These mills consume 60,000 tons of pig metal, and produce bar iron and nails to the amount of $4,000,000 annually. There are also thirty large foundries, and several smaller ones, employing 2,500 hands, and a capital of $2,000,000. They consume 20,000 tons of pig metal, and yield articles amounting to $2,000,000 annually. There are two establishments for manufacturing locks, latches, coffee-mills, scales, and other articles of iron, employing 500 hands, and a capital of $250,000. These two establishments consume annually 1,200 tons of metal, converting it into goods worth $3,000,000. Pittsburg also has five large cotton factories and several smaller ones, employing 1,500 hands—capital, $1,500,000, and producing products, out of 15,000 bales of cotton annually consumed, worth $1,500,000.

There are also eight flint-glass manufactories in Pittsburg, employing five hundred hands, a capital of $300,000, and producing, out of 150 tons of lead, and 200 tons of pearl-ashes, various articles of glassware, worth annually $400,000. There are also seven phial furnaces, and 11 window-glass manufactories, employing 600 hands, a capital of $250,000, and yielding products to the amount of $600,000 annually. One soda-ash manufactory employs 75 men, and produces, annually, 1,500 tons. One copper-smelting establishment produces, annually, 600 tons of refined copper, worth $250,000. One copper-rolling mill yields copper sheathing worth $150,000 annually. Five white lead factories produce, annually, with a capital of $150,000, 150,000 kegs of lead, worth $200,000. There are also many factories of the smaller sizes of iron, and several establishments for the manufacture of axes, hatchets, spring steel, steel springs, axles, anvils, vices, saws of all kinds, gun barrels, shovels, spades, forks, hoes, tacks, brads, &c., &c.

It is estimated that the full value of all the manufactures of Pittsburg does not fall short of $50,000,000.

Commerce.—The exports to foreign countries from Pennsylvania amounted, in 1850, to $4,501,606, and the imports to $12,066,154. In 1841, the exports amounted to $5,152,501, and the imports to $10,346,698. The amount of domestic produce exported in 1850, was $4,049,464.

Internal Improvements.—Pennsylvania has 28 rail-roads, varying from 4 to 174 miles in length, and making, in all, a line of 918 miles. This does not include some that are yet incomplete. The entire cost of these roads was $35,401,033.

The principal canal of Pennsylvania is the Pennsylvania Canal, the eastern branch of which extends from Columbia, on the Susquehanna, to Hollidaysburg, at the foot of the Alleghanies, a distance of 172 miles. This branch is connected by a rail-road passing over the mountains, with the western branch of the canal, extending from Johnstown to Pittsburg, 104 miles, making the whole length of the canal 276 miles. A canal extends from the Pennsylvania Canal, at the mouth of the Juniata, to Cumberland, 39 miles, where it connects with the North and West Branch canals. The West Branch Canal extends from Northumberland, along the west of the Susquehanna River, 75 miles, to Farrandsville, near the bituminous coal region. The North Branch division extends from Northumberland, 73 miles, to a little above Wilkesbarre. The Delaware division of the Pennsylvania Canal extends from tide-water at Bristol, 20 miles above Philadelphia, to Easton, at the mouth of the Lehigh, where it joins the navigation of the Lehigh company, extending to the coal region, 25 miles. The Schuylkill navigation commences at the Fairmount Dam, near Philadelphia, and extends to Port Carbon, the heart of the coal region. There is also the Union Canal, which extends from the Schuylkill, near Reading, to Middletown, on the Susquehanna, 82 miles. It has a branch 23 miles long on Swatara Creek, which leads to the coal region. The Susquehanna, or Tidewater Canal, extends from Wrightsville, opposite Columbia, to Havre-de-Grace, in Maryland, a distance of 45 miles, connecting the Pennsylvania Canal with the tide-water of Chesapeake Bay.

Banks.—The first experiment of paper currency made in Pennsylvania was in 1722, when the province issued bills to the amount of £15,000. No loans were made but on land security, or plate deposited in the loan office. Borrowers were obliged to pay five per cent.; and the bills of the province were made a legal tender in all payments, *on pain of confiscating* the debt, or forfeiting the commodity. Penalties were also imposed on all persons who presumed to make any bargain or sale on cheaper terms, in case of being paid in gold or silver. One-eighth of the public debts thus created was to be annually paid. We do not propose to give the history of banking in Pennsylvania, but merely to state the present condition in general terms of the banks of the state. Banking, like everything else, has progressed rapidly in Pennsylvania. It had in November, 1850, no less than 54 banking institutions, or one for each county in the state.

These 54 banks have a capital of $19,125,477, and a circulation of $12,072,888. The tax paid on dividends in 1850, amounted to $153,877, and the tax on corporation stocks to $70,008. Banking operations in Pennsylvania have not fluctuated much since 1842, in which year also the banking capital was $19,127,677. Last year, applications were made to the legislature of Pennsylvania for an increase of capital to the amount of $4,900,000, which includes some new banks.

BANKS IN PENNSYLVANIA IN JANUARY, 1852.

Banks.		Capital.	Banks.		Capital.
Philadelphia	15	$10,518,600	Lancaster	4	$955,000
Bristol	1	92,220	Lebanon	1	80,320
Brownsville	1	175,000	Middletown	1	100,000
Carlisle	1	22,500	Norristown	1	384,000
Chambersburg	1	205,470	Northumberland	1	160,000
Chester	1	155,640	Pittsburg	4	2,618,543
Columbia	1	307,300	Pottsville	1	199,120
Danville	1	165,770	Reading	1	300,000
Doylestown	1	60,000	Schuylkill Haven	1	100,000
Easton	2	550,000	Washington	1	120,000
Erie	1	101,890	Waynesburg	1	100,000
Germantown	1	152,000	Westchester	1	225,000
Gettysburg	1	123,873	Wilkesbarre	1	85,330
Hanover	1	36,000	Williamport	1	100,000
Harrisburg	2	350,000	York	2	320,000
Honesdale	1	100,000			

Total, 54 banks, with $18,966,351 capital. New-York, with less than one-third more of population, has 218 banks, with $58,497,345 capital; Massachusetts, with half the population, 137 banks, and $43,350,000 capital. We are indebted to the Bankers' Magazine for the figures.

Finances.—According to a report made to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, by the Auditor-General, in January, 1851, the total public debt of the state was then $40,677,214 68. Of this debt, all of which is funded but $912,570, there are $200,000 bearing 4½ per cent. interest; $38,009,817 bearing 5 per cent.; and $2,387,396, bearing 6 per cent. interest.

The productive property owned by the state is as follows:

Stock in incorporated companies	$1,907,948
Pennsylvania rail-roads and canals	29,204,787
Total productive property	$31,112,735

The total amount of interest paid by the state annually on its liabilities, is about $2,204,700.

The total receipts of the state, from all sources and available means in 1850, were $5,634,338; and the total expenditures for the same year, $4,569,053.

Some of the principal items of expenditure of the state in 1850 were as follows: public improvements, $1,488,799; expenses of government, $272,899; common schools, $213,728; interest, $2,004,700; charitable institutions, $62,267; pensions and gratuities, $17,277; military expenses, $16,282; commissioners of sinking fund, $318,864; penitentiaries, $19,283; damages on public works, $28,068.

Some of the chief sources of income were: Tax on real and personal estate, $1,317,821; canal and rail-road tolls, $1,713,848; tax on bank dividends and corporation stocks, $300,000; retailers' licenses, $171,062; tavern licenses, $107,427; auction duties, $44,898; tax on writs, wills, deeds, &c., $45,409; auction commissions, $18,673; tax on certain offices, $14,047; military fines, $12,952; brokers' licenses, $10,228; other licenses, $21,323; collateral inherent tax, $102,295; loans, $270,000.

Judiciary.—By the amended constitution now in force, all judges in Pennsylvania are elected by the people. The judges of the Supreme Court are chosen at large for a term of fifteen years; and the judges of the several courts of Common Pleas and other courts of record, and all other judges, are elected by the electors of the districts over which they preside, for a term of 10 years. The associate justices of the Common Pleas hold office five years. All judges are liable to removal for lack of good behavior; and the governor, with two-thirds of each branch of the legislature, can remove a judge for reasonable cause, short of sufficient grounds for impeachment.

The salary of a judge of the Supreme Court is $1,600; that of a judge of the District Courts, $2,000; and of the Courts of Common Pleas, from $1,600 to $2,600.

There are four District Courts, invested with the civil jurisdiction of the Common Pleas in all cases exceeding a certain amount.

Schools and Colleges.—The common school system in Pennsylvania is complete. The following are the statistics for 1850:

Whole number of common schools in the state	8,844	
Average number of months of teaching	5·1	
Number of teachers, male and female	11,241	
Average wages, per month, of male teachers		$17 20
" " " female "		$10 15
Number of male scholars	242,621	
Number of female scholars	189,181	
Number learning German	11,041	
Cost of teaching each scholar, per month		$1 44
Amount of school tax levied		$795 401
State appropriation		$159 367
Entire expense of schools, including instruction, school-houses, repairs, fuel, and contingencies		$926 447
Regular annual state appropriation		$200 000

Colleges, high-schools and academies, in Pennsylvania, are numerous. The University of Pennsylvania was founded in Philadelphia, in 1755. Its foundation may be said to have been laid by Dr. Franklin, in 1742, who about that time projected an academy and free school, which became presently a college, and finally the University of Pennsylvania, which at present has 7 professors, but only 88 students. Its president is John Ludlow, D. D. Dickinson College, at Carlisle, was founded in 1783: it has 8 professors and 179 students; president, Jesse T. Peck, D. D. Jefferson College, at Canonsburg, was founded in 1802: it has 8 professors and 197 students; president, A. B. Brown, D. D. Washington College, at Washington, in the western part of the state, was founded in 1806: it has 8 professors and 189 students; president, James Clark, D. D. Alleghany College is at Meadville: it was established in 1817, and has 7 professors and 106 students; president, J. Barker, D. D. Pennsylvania College is at Gettysburg, and has 7 professors and 64 students; founded in 1832; president, H. L. Baugher. Lafayette College, at Easton, was established in 1832, and has 7 professors and 82 students; president, George Junkin, D. D. Marshall College, at Mercersburg, was founded in 1835, and has 6 professors and 58 students; president, J. W. Nevin, D. D.

Pennsylvania has, we believe, but one law-school, that of Dickinson College. It has seven theological seminaries, of different Protestant denominations: it has four medical schools, all in Philadelphia. The oldest of these is the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania, the oldest medical school in America. It was founded by the efforts of Drs. Shippen and Morgan, two eminent physicians in Philadelphia, before the Revolution. It has 7 professors and 450 students. It graduated, since its commencement, 5,316 students. Jefferson Medical College, founded in 1824, has 7 professors, 514 students, and has 2,036 graduates. The Medical Department of Pennsylvania College was founded in 1838. It has 7 professors, 176 students, and 73 graduates. The Philadelphia College of Medicine has 7 professors, 75 students, and 250 graduates.

We regret that we have not more ample statistics to offer on the subject of education in Pennsylvania, and on other subjects. The complete returns of the last U. S. census are yet unpublished. In 1840, there were, in a population of 1,724,033 persons, 33,940 white persons, over 20 years of age, who could neither read nor write. The figures of the census of 1850, will probably show a more favorable result.

Agricultural Products.—Pennsylvania ranks fourth in the Union in respect to the extent of her improved land; New-York having 12,285-077 acres of improved land; Virginia, 10,150,106; Ohio, 9,730,650; and Pennsylvania, 8,619,631 acres. Georgia ranks next. The large extent of mountain lands in Pennsylvania restricts very much her agricultural area. Some portions of the state, particularly the northern and western, are very thinly inhabited, although the lands are good. Pennsylvania, however, occupies no mean position in respect to agriculture, when comparing the value of her farming implements and machinery with those of other states. Those of New-York are estimated at $22,217,563; Pennsylvania, $14,931,093; Ohio, $12,-716,153; Louisiana, $11,326,310; Virginia, $7,021,658. The value of the live stock of Pennsylvania is $42,146,711—the state, in this respect, being in advance of all others, except New-York and Ohio. *Wheat.*—Pennsylvania produces more wheat than any other state of the Union; its yield, in 1850, being 15,482,191 bushels. Ohio produced 14,967,056; Virginia, 14,516,950; and New-York, 13,073,357 bushels. *Indian Corn.*—Pennsylvania produced, in 1850, more than

New-York, by about 2,000,000 bushels; but not more than one-third as much as Ohio, Kentucky, Illinois, Indiana, Tennessee, and Missouri, the six greatest Indian corn-growing states. The amount for Pennsylvania is 19,707,702 bushels. *Tobacco*—Pennsylvania produced, in 1850, 857,619 lbs. *Wool*—4,784,367 lbs. *Wine*—23,839 gallons. *Butter*—40,554,741 lbs. *Cheese*—2,395,279 lbs. *Hay*—1,826,265 tons. *Flaxseed*—43,627 bushels. *Maple Sugar*—2,218,644 lbs. These figures are derived from the census of 1850. When the returns of that census are complete, we shall give the results in full.

COMMERCE OF PHILADELPHIA, 1850–1851.

The following is an official statement of the amount and value of the exports from Philadelphia to foreign ports during the year ending the 30th September last:

Flour, brls.,	304,812	$1,393,527	Butter, lbs.,	5,770,973	$76,794
Rye Flour, brls.	13.341	45,292	Cheese, lbs.,	168,044	
Corn Meal, brls.	71,883	210,004	Potatoes, bushels	3,934	2,723
Bread, brls.	19,179	68,174	Apples, brls.	250	736
do. kegs	11,933		Rice, tcs.,	3,374	72,098
Wheat, bushels	342,221	369,326	Tobacco, leaf, hhds.,	621	73,152
Corn, bushels	609,176	392,490	Beer, gallons	10,431	8,250
Other Grain, bushels	"	36,246	Porter and Cider, doz.,	3.373	
Bark, hhds,	5,591	129,907	Candles, lbs.	788,021	138,548
Cotton, bales	2,072	113,963	Soap, lbs.	883,992	
Coal, tons	13,827	55,802	Iron manufactures	....	216,750
Dried Fish, cwt.,	3,257	8,678	Drugs	....	49,778
Pickled Fish, brls.,	1,243	5,588	Domestic pkgs	4,539	247,113
Sperm Oil, gallons	12,969	16,486	Books	....	4,107
Whale Oil, gallons	132,802	69,732	Paper	....	12,119
Sperm Candles, lbs.,	45,076	15,423	Paints	...	2,641
Manufactures of Wool	"	162,036	Vinegar, gallons	35,460	3,676
Tar and Pitch, brls.	1,612	25,271	Furniture,	....	20,942
Rosin, brls.,	14,040		Tobacco, manuf. lbs.,	218,166	38,142
Beef, brls.,	7,442	136,061	Gunpowder, lbs	97,300	13,021
Tallow, lbs.,	587,002		Nails, lbs	413,624	13,742
Pork, brls	6,287	436,611			
Hams, lbs.,	677,650				
Lard, lbs.,	3,268,090				

EXPORTS BREADSTUFFS FROM PHILADELPHIA, FROM 1831 TO 1852.

We have prepared the following table, showing the exports of wheat and rye flour, corn meal, wheat and corn, from this port annually, for the last twenty years:

Wheat Flour.

1831.....brls.	259,785	1837.....brls.	33,680	1842.....brls.	161,866	1847.....brls.	420,684
1832	151,917	1838	69,622	1843	128,517	1846	179,507
1833	132,622	1839	191,380	1844	196,433	1849	220,786
1834	87,905	1840	284,774	1845	201,956	1850	83,024
1835	96,098	1841	195,555	1846	366,610	1851	299,466
1836	67,113						

Rye Flour.

1831......brls.	8,433	1837.....brls.	17,276	1842.....brls.	22,530	1847.....brls.	20,407
1832	13,040	1838	14,211	1843	22,303	1848	15,537
1833	27,939	1839	24,527	1844	21,904	1849	26,536
1834	23,795	1840	36,471	1845	17,098	1850	25,054
1835	21,038	1841	26,866	1846	19,730	1851	10,505
1836	27,429						

Corn Meal.

1831.... brls.	45,432	1837.....brls.	63,803	1842.....brls.	97,884	1847.....brls.	300,531
1832	50,328	1838	64,002	1843	106,484	1848	140,014
1833	51,903	1839	73,800	1844	101,356	1849	91,319
1834	50,018	1840	89,486	1845	115,101	1850	94,334
1835	50,869	1841	108,822	1846	144,857	1851	65,385
1836	42,798						

Wheat.

1831....bush.	61,282	1840....bush.	280,047	1844....bush.	23,375	1848....bush.	207,092
1832.........	2,258	1841.........	56,571	1845.........	86,089	1849.........	177,312
1835.........	2,903	1842.........	87,953	1846.........	245,136	1850.........	205,670
1839.........	37,831	1843.........	32,235	1847.........	523,538	1851.........	225,201

Corn.

1831....bush.	49,293	1837....bush.	21,486	1842....bush.	83,772	1847...bush.	1,102,210
1832.........	48,859	1838.........	17,087	1843.........	74,613	1848.........	817,150
1833.........	66,708	1839.........	17,117	1844.........	110,068	1849.........	906,823
1834.........	31,526	1840.........	76,749	1845.........	129,256	1850.........	602,680
1835.........	25,457	1841.........	80,266	1846.........	279,820	1851.........	554,545
1836.........	19,117						

ANNUAL ARRIVALS AT PHILADELPHIA.

The following table shows the number of vessels which arrived at this port annually from 1835 to 1851 inclusive. It will be seen that the increase has been very rapid of late years:

Years.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.	Years.	Foreign.	Coastwise.	Total.
1835	429	3573	4002	1844	472	7717	8189
1836	421	3764	4185	1845	387	8029	8416
1837	409	7476	8185	1846	459	6018	6477
1838	464	10,860	11,324	1847	657	18,069	18,726
1839	521	11,188	11,709	1848	542	23,921	24,463
1840	456	9706	10,162	1849	585	24,594	25,169
1841	504	9246	9750	1850	518	27,035	27,553
1842	454	7973	8427	1851	576	26,484	27,060
1843	372	7659	8031				

ART. IV.—RAIL-ROAD PROSPECTS AND PROGRESS.

POSITION OF TENNESSEE IN REFERENCE TO RAIL-ROADS—DUTY OF THE STATE IN CONSTRUCTING ROADS—THEIR INFLUENCE, SOCIALLY, INDUSTRIALLY AND POLITICALLY—WHAT THE SOUTH SHOULD DO TO REGAIN OR RETAIN POWER—GROWTH OF THE RAIL-ROAD SYSTEM, ETC., ETC.

[Having at last a little spare time, we have written out from our notes the speech delivered by us in October last in the legislative halls at Nashville. A copy of it was requested for publication, and we comply with the request in this manner, that the kindness of gentlemen may not be rewarded by a *pecuniary* tax. Our readers will receive it as an equivalent for the article we are bound to contribute to each number of the magazine, and which we chance not to have the time to write. The speech was delivered as a member, and in behalf of the South-western Convention committee.]—EDITOR.

FELLOW-CITIZENS OF TENNESSEE:—In the history of our country, the star of empire has been westward. Population, wealth, refinement, intelligence, have all been sweeping into the great Western Valley. The crowning achievements of them all, the telegraph and the rail-road, twin sisters, are now ready, and waiting to perform their glorious mission in elevating and perfecting our civilization and our progress.

I stand upon the soil of Tennessee, and, for the first time, in its proud capital. Tennessee, the first growth of western progress—Tennessee, where sleep two presidents of this republic, the man of iron will, who throttled the British lion, and he whose career of fame and honor has just now ended in the gloom of death!—a state with a million of inhabitants,—with inexhaustible agricultural, mineral and manufacturing resources in embryo or in development,—with public credit entirely unimpaired, and with none of the trammels of public debt.

Gentlemen, should Tennessee sleep in this age of progress? In her central situation, with her wealth and her resources, and a country as favored as any upon which the light of God's sun has ever shone—should Tennessee sleep, and let the star of westward progress pass over her, leaving her upon the horizon rather than in the zenith? I think I see it and hear it in everything around me—never, never! You are prepared, then, to act, gentlemen—the South demands it from you; the Southwest, in whose councils you are destined to lead. The eyes of all the states are upon your legislature, which is now in session, and which I am informed, and which I in part know, is one of the most enlightened and liberal that has ever met in your capital. All their public works are striking for your state to radiate through it and to project to the North, the East, the South and the West, making Nashville, indeed, a queen city—a depot of travel and of freights for the great lakes and the gulf of Mexico—for the Atlantic seaboard and the mighty Northwest.

Gentlemen, the spirit of improvement and progress which has descended upon you, is sweeping down the valley of the Mississippi, and producing its wonderful results in all of the states to the southward of your limits. It is for you, legislators, the first to sit during this excitement of the public mind, to lead the way and direct the spirit of the times to immediate and practical results. Indicate your course of policy, and let it be a broad and a liberal one, something worthy of a great state like Tennessee; and believe me, when I say it, that Mississippi and Louisiana will unite upon the same platform of improvement with you, and that Alabama, and Arkansas, and Texas, will respond to the extent of their means and capacities. These states are but in the infancy of progress and improvement, and are now looking to you to pave the way for a system which henceforward shall emphatically be known as the *South-western* system. With your resolutions and acts in their hands, the friends of improvement may walk boldly, and I believe triumphantly, into the legislatures of Mississippi and Louisiana, which are soon to be in session.

Gentlemen, with all your wonderful resources, you are, perhaps, worse off than any state in the Union with regard to a market. You are shut *in* by mountains on the one side, and on the other shut *off* from the Mississippi by little streams which you call "rivers," which drag their slow length along, and approximate to John Randolph's account of the Ohio, a river which, when it is not locked up in ice, has run dry of water. How can such a state work out a high destiny? If we must be dependent upon her slow coaches, though they run upon turnpikes, her beautiful Nashville might as well be a Timbuctoo, for what the rest of the world would know of it. God may have given you coal and iron sufficient to work the spindles and navies of the world; but they will sleep in your everlasting hills until the trumpet of Gabriel shall sound, unless you can do something better than build *turnpikes.* You may have granaries sufficiently stocked to feed mankind, but mankind will starve and perish before a bushel of grain can reach them.

I honor the spirit which has given to your state, in her turnpikes, the very best common roads in the world. Honor to Tennessee for her liberal state and individual contributions. These turnpikes were a great march in advance, and are but the pioneers of other improvements. They are a step in progress; though like the hand-loom and the flat-boat, and the old-fashioned spinning-wheel, they have become obsolete. For you to rest upon your turnpikes, and go no further, would be as reasonable as the act of the old hand-loom weavers who conspired against steam, or the scribes and copyists who rebelled against the printing press, as an invention of the devil and Dr. Faustus.

You have about 1,000 miles of turnpike, which have cost on an average $3,000 per mile, or $3,000,000. These are now paying but small *money* dividends. The reason is, that turnpikes are very costly modes of communication, and will invite no other trade than that which of *necessity* belongs to them. Charles Ellet, Esq., of the Virginia Public Works, estimates the freights on turnpikes to cost 15 and 20 cents per ton per mile; whilst on rail-roads they are but 2½ cents, and canals, 1½ cents. Yet, gentlemen, these *money* dividends are but a small consideration. I am told by intelligent gentlemen along the route of your turnpikes, that land has appreciated in value from $2 to $10 per acre. If this be the case, the roads have more than paid for themselves. Take a road of 100 miles, and suppose a cost of $5000 per mile $500,000, and suppose land on each side for five miles back to be raised in value only 70 cents an acre, you have the whole of the investment! I defy the proof that the average advancement has not reached this figure. If, then, with this imperfect and now almost obsolete mode of communication, so much has been added to the value of your landed property, how much may you expect from that physically perfect mode which is called a rail-road, and which can carry off the surplus of your lands at one-fifth the present cost of doing it, as well as increase the demand for this surplus.

Do you ask how it is that a rail-road or a canal raises the price of land? The case is simple. I will take for illustration that of a planter having to do fifty miles of wagoning, and thousands of bales of cotton are wagoned from 100 to 200 miles. Suppose the wagoning be to Nashville: can this cost less than $2 per bale?—commissions at Nashville, etc., 50 cents—freight by the river to New-Orleans, $1 50—insurance, 50—total, $4 50. Now, suppose a rail-road direct to New-Orleans from this planter's door, and 2½ cents the ton per mile be charged, say 550 miles, we have $3 50, a saving of one dollar per bale. Now, on a tract of 1,000 acres, producing 500 bales, we have a saving of $500, or 50 cents on each acre, to say nothing of saving in return freights, travel, &c. Fifty cents is the interest on $10. But this, gentlemen, shows nothing like the truth, as all experience proves. Proximity to market, and the capacity to take advantage of all its phases, convenience of access to the world, the general comforts and safety of rail-roads, the new lands which they bring into cultivation, and the enhanced demand for interior products of every description which they induce, even down to the smallest ones of the dairy and the farm-yard—all, taken together, swell the increase in the value of land, near to which a rail-road passes, from $5 to $10, and in favored spots even $20 an acre.

Take the case of a rail-road running through one of your counties, Davison for example, thirty miles long, having cost $15,000 the mile, $450,000, and suppose the lands on each side for fifteen miles back to be raised in value but $1 30 per acre, you have the whole of the investment at once returned back to the county the moment the road is finished. Will not the increase be double this?—to say nothing of the ordinary dividends on roads, which are seldom less than the usual per centage on capital and industry.

If nothing more were said, would not the argument be irresistible? I quote from an able speech from Mr. Segar, in the legislature of Virginia.

[We omit the extract from want of space.]

I take the position that there is not in the world an interest more promising at this moment than that of rail-roads. In England they are paying an average dividend of 4½ per cent. on the present value of shares, being much more than the average interest of money. In the United States, the average profit is stated by the Rail-road Journal at 5 per cent. I know it will be said there has been a depreciation in the value of rail-road stocks in both countries, and that in England hundreds of millions have been lost. I admit it; but can human prudence guard against occasional extravagances in every branch of affairs, particularly in novel ones? Where the touchstone of experience cannot be supplied, profligacy and recklessness will result. But this period has gone by; and it is, in one sense, fortunate for us that we begin with all the experience which it has cost the world hundreds of millions to acquire. If these occasional disasters in rail-roads be made anything of, let us ask in what department of business have there been fewer disasters? Certainly not in *commerce*, for, gentlemen, in the item of banks alone, this country lost in ten years $150,000,000; certainly not in *manufactures*, for we know that this interest continually fluctuates, and that large capitals are often sunk in a few years; not even in *agriculture*, for you will all remember the shipwreck which came upon the planters after the bursting of the banking bubble in 1837. The Massachusetts and the Georgia rail-roads are now paying 8 per cent., and in many cases 10 and 12. The Georgia rail-road, from Atlanta to Augusta, paid 6 per cent. in the first six months from the time of its completion; and in 1847, 10 per cent. on a capital of $2,200,000. The Baltimore and Ohio road, on a cost of $50,000 per mile, pays 6½ cents; and would, unfinished as it is, says Mr. Segar, pay much more, but that it is compelled to take up much of the original superstructure.

But, gentlemen, as I said before, money dividends are but a small part of the value of rail-roads; and I trust you will forgive me for reading some extracts, which I think will convince your minds, if a solitary doubt still remains upon them.

[We omit these extracts, the facts being established in numerous articles in the Review, particularly the elaborate one on rail-roads, we published in August, 1851.]

Well, gentlemen, if rail-roads produce all these results, can you justify yourselves to yourselves and your country, in remaining without them? You cannot, and I think you acknowledge it. What then is to be done, and where are you to begin?

I take the position, that it is the first duty of the state to lead off, and that she as much owes this to her people as she does the duty of protecting their lives and their property, or any other act of government. In all history, government has been held bound to construct and keep up the public highways of the country. We are all familiar with the magnificent highways of old Rome; the ruins of which give us no meagre idea of the magnificence of that ancient empire. The principle is, that communication should be left open and free, and that the people, with their products, should pass easily and economically where they list; and that this is the duty of government. Now, in the progress of science and civilization, it has been discovered that the old sixty-feet road cut through the woods is not such a speedy and free and cheap mode of communication as is adequate to the wants of a people, who are advancing in the modern ratio of civilization and improvement. Is the government then doing its duty when it adheres to these roads? Should not government be progressive, and keep pace with the wants of the people? If they ask bread, should it give them a stone? In its construction of roads, government should avail itself of all the improvements of the age. The most economical and best road, upon the whole, should be adopted; be this clay road, McAdam road, or turnpike. You have admitted the argument in regard to turnpikes. Does it change the principle to go a step further? Your turnpike grades only solidifies the roads, at large expense, to prepare them for the ordinary vehicles of travel. These vehicles are getting out of popular use, and are being substituted by a different class, which require a different description of road, to wit: a road of parallel sills, with iron bars, to resist the friction, instead of rocks and gravel. Now, gentlemen, if all the world is adopting this description of road, and if the old highways are clumsy and expensive, and behind the times, it is a perfect mockery to say that government must adhere to them, and is doing its duty in going no further. The rail-road is nothing but the common road made *perfect*. The cars, the engines, etc., and the working of them, are a different matter, and these may be left to individuals as we now leave them to work their own carriages and wagons. Hence I interpret the duty of government, in keeping up its roads, to mean simply this: that the roads should be adequate to the requirements of the kind of vehicle most preferred and used, whether it be carriage, wagon, or rail-road car. To accommodate solely and provide solely for one class of vehicles, and that the meanest and the worst, would be to retain the old trial by battle, the fictions of John Doe and Richard Roe, or any other of the legal caprices of our respectable ancestors. But if this argument in favor of government's building rail-roads be not granted, let us suppose, for some reason or other—say, from inundations, it became entirely impossible to use the common roads or turnpikes at any time for travel, would government be entirely exonerated from the duty of giving the people outlet and communication? Is it not practically impossible now for the people to use the ordinary highways, and compete in industry and progress with their neighbors all over the world?

Yet, I would not stretch the argument so far as to say, that government should exclusively construct the rail-roads of the country; nor do I pretend to advocate the policy of grading and laying down the track and the iron at public expense, though my parallel may have carried me thus far. I am in favor of leaving everything possible to individual enterprise, because I believe individuals can operate with more success and economy. If individual enterprise were adequate to the construction of rail-roads, I should be willing to leave the matter there; but as it is not, and as it is conceded that the federal government has no power, the *necessity* devolves upon the states. I say individual enterprise is *not* adequate. It has not been found so in communities where dense population and advanced industry have generated enormous surplus capital;—how much less must it be adequate in the sparse population and meagre savings of a country like the Southwest? Massachusetts, for example, has granted state aid to her roads to the extent of $5,500,000; Georgia, $3,500,000; Virginia, three-fifths to all roads; Michigan, $6,000,000; North Carolina, which we had thought fast asleep, $2,000,000 to a single road. In no state have rail-roads succeeded without some such aid, and where they have been extensively adopted, this state aid has been the great impulse. Without it, few of these brilliant results would have been achieved. Without it, we, in particular, should linger along for a generation in effecting what others have done in four or five years. We have no time to lose. Every day increases the distance between ourselves and our enterprising neighbors, and makes the contest between us a more hopeless one.

You are aware, gentlemen, that the State of New-York has outstretched her hands to the extent of millions in aid of her public works, and that she is reaping the fruits in ten thousand ways. They have already repaid their cost over and over in the enhancement of property and in dividends. In a few years the revenue of these works will free the people of that state forever from taxation. A single act of legislation there has appropriated $12,000,000 for the enlargement of the Erie Canal.

Pennsylvania, it was thought, had bankrupted herself by her enormous debt contracted for internal improvements. Her example of repudiation was pointed to as a striking example of the impolicy of large state aid to rail-roads. But what is the fact in Pennsylvania? Is she not infinitely richer from her public works? Has she not redeemed her honor, and do not these works already enable her to maintain her engagements promptly? In one of our Southern states we have had repudiation, and that *without* rail-roads; and without *this* element of wealth it will continue to be repudiation in that state. Gentlemen, with all the liberal appropriations by states in aid of rail-roads, I know of no instance in which the public weal or credit has permanently suffered. I defy a single example. Where large and unproductive debts have been created it has not been for this purpose. It has been for banks which add nothing permanent to wealth, and in passing away leave no traces behind them. A rail-road is an addition to the wealth of the community—it is so much value that stands there and cannot be destroyed; and a state might as soon expect to bankrupt herself by such investments, judiciously made, as a vender of patent medicines bankrupt himself by extravagant expenditures in advertisements.

The safe and sound rule is for the legislature to meet individual enterprise half way in the matter of rail-roads, and stimulate it onward by liberal grants. For example, let the policy be a permanent one: that whenever a company has paid in its stock and completed its grading and its woodwork, and is ready for the iron, that the state will furnish this iron, by endorsing the bonds of the company. These bonds will then be readily negotiable. It will not be creating a state debt,—for who can doubt that the roads will be able to pay promptly the interest on the bonds? If the rail-road pays a dividend of but two to three per cent. per annum, (and what rail-road in the United States is not paying twice as much?) it can redeem these outstanding bonds, which will amount to only one-third or one-half of the whole capital of the road; or if we take the almost impossible case that the company cannot keep down the interest, the state has its lien upon all its works, and can, of course, sell out and reimburse herself at any moment; and what road will not sell for more than the cost of the iron?

This system will work well, for it may properly be left to private enterprise to select its routes, and there is no danger that these will be too numerous. Men are generally wide awake to their own interest; and in this enlightened period, when there is so much knowledge and experience abroad in regard to rail-roads, errors can hardly happen. Routes that are not demanded or likely to be profitable, will scarcely secure the investments of shrewd and calculating capitalists. But even if the state were to sink some of her capital in this manner, and incur some permanent public debt, in what more glorious cause could it be done? States are ever ready to bankrupt themselves with debt for fleets, and armies, and wars. Ours is a measure of peace; and whatever permanent debt, be it remembered, that it brings, it brings at the same time, in the increase in the value of every description of property, the *tax-paying fund to meet this debt.*

Gentlemen, it is high time that the South and the West should do something to gain a position in this confederacy which is not dependent and degrading. We must seek for some more profitable investments of our capital than those we have relied upon in the past. Why are we for ever nerveless, in debt, and without surplus for any purpose, and must run off to the North whenever we would procure a little capital to work a mill site or dam a river? We invest nearly everything in a staple which is forever at one extreme or the other. We are offered large prices when we have none to sell; but when our warehouses are laden with it, we can find nobody willing to buy.

The construction of a system of rail-roads at the South, in addition to its other advantages, will have this: that it will divert a large slave force into more profitable channels than agriculture. The planters will find inducements to employ a portion of their force in all the works of grading, embankments, cutting timber and fuel, bridging, etc. Indeed, by the employment almost of the surplus labor of the plantations, rail-roads might in many cases be constructed, being thus almost a clear gain to the wealth of the country. We already find these *work* subscriptions, as they are called, have become popular in the South.

But not only will this division of labor occur, which will be very great, but the construction of rail-roads, in leading to the development of the mineral resources of a country; in giving them an outlet and in promoting manufactures; in securing them an expeditious and safe access to market,—for this has been the result everywhere, gentlemen, throughout Pennsylvania, New-York and New-England—the construction of rail-roads will lead to other diversions of labor and capital, which must be greatly beneficial to the South; and we cannot hope to bring about these diversions by any other means.

Upon whom are we dependent for our manufacturing necessities?—the shoes on our feet, the hat on our head, the cloth in our coat, the very shirt that we wear, down to the very pin and button that fastens it?—answer, the North: a people, many of whom have been hostile to us in interest and in feeling—who have estimated our connection by the dollars that it would bring them—who have excommunicated us as slaveholders at the sacred altar, and with pharisaical cant thanked God they were not like us poor publicans,—a people who have enticed away our slaves, mobbed us when we have attempted to reclaim them, and, like the hard Egyptian task-masters, continued to exact the tale of brick after they have taken away from us the straw with which we could make it; for, gentlemen, the North realizes out of our cotton fields as much as we do ourselves, and, in the manufacturing which she conducts for us, makes a clear annual profit of over $40,000,000 per annum.

But when we come to commerce—that commerce which has made the North great and powerful—how much of it is the result of Southern labor? The whole carrying trade of your products and the return cargoes are entirely in their hands, bringing them a profit of their own showing of $40,000,000 more per annum. And this, too, gentlemen, when, before the Revolution and before our present government, the Southern colonies, with a less population than New-England, New-York and Pennsylvania, exported abroad *directly* nearly five times as much produce. In the same period, Carolina and Georgia exported twice the value of New-York, Pennsylvania and

New-England. In the years from 1821 to 1830, New-York alone exceeded these states.

Here, then, are eighty millions of dollars taken annually from us, and which legitimately should have been retained in our midst, and which will yet be retained here, if we are true to ourselves.

But this is not all; how much more does the North receive from us annually in the support of her schools and her colleges, her editors, her authors and her clergy, her Saratogas and her Newports, her allurements of various kinds?—and more than all, how much do her citizens, who come among us to gather wealth, return home with, to build up those colossal interests there which are the wonders of the world? Is there any reciprocity, sirs? Who of the North "reads a Southern book"—they have said this themselves sneeringly—who visits a Southern watering-place—attends a Southern college? I think it would be safe to estimate the amount which is lost to us annually by our vassalage to the North at $100,000,000. Great God! does Ireland sustain a more degrading relation to Great Britain? Will we not throw off this humiliating dependence, and act for ourselves? What a country would be the South, could we retain this money at home—what ships and navies we should have—what dense metropolitan and magnificent cities—what manufacturing establishments, making every hill and valley vocal with the whirl of machinery—what rail-roads, radiating to every village and town, like the arteries from the human heart—what mineral resources developed—what watering-places, crowded with wealth and fashion and beauty—what schools and colleges, in which our sons should be reared to fidelity to their native South—what dense population—what wealth and what power!—and yet we are now poor and scattered, and in this isolation and dependence of our condition, afraid almost of our very shadows upon the wall.

Throw off this yoke of bondage, and begin to show your manhood at once. We are poor and miserable, whereas we should be great. In a question between the North and South, I prefer the South. Charity begins at home. Not that I love Cæsar less, but Rome more. Whatever divisions exist in Southern politics, there can be none upon this of *Southern Industrial Independence.* Fire-eater and compromiser must all meet here, unless they go beyond Scripture, and love others *better* than themselves. Here is a separate state action upon which all must agree—that of loom, and spindle, and locomotive. This is the extent of my "fire-eating." "If it be *treason,* make the most of it!"

"Let us then be up and doing
With a heart for every fate,
Still resolving, still pursuing,
Learn to *labor* and to wait."

Gentlemen, I am among you as a delegate from New-Orleans, to speak to you upon this subject of rail-roads, and invoke your action with hers. I wish I had more power of popular oratory to speak to you and to rouse you into action; but what little reputation I have, has been acquired in a different field, and one in which I hope I have been able to do the South some service. I have never once faltered in that field, and I trust in God I never shall in any time of trial and of difficulty.

In every period of your history, gentlemen, New-Orleans has been your commercial centre—your outlet to the markets of the world. You are as familiar with its high-ways and its by-ways as we are ourselves—its places of fashionable resort and amusement. Why, almost every other man we meet in our streets in the winter season, is a Tennesseean, and half the witching beauty and loveliness of the female form, which makes Chartres-street a very eastern bazaar, traces its origin to Tennessee. When New-Orleans was in the hands of the Spanish and the French, you vowed, by all the powers, she should be yours, and you got her. When New-Orleans was menaced by an insulting foe, whose watch-word was booty and beauty, the glorious chief of the Hermitage swore "by the Eternal," she should not be taken, and you saved her. Tennessee and Louisiana have ever been linked together; and whom God and your rifles have put together, let no man put asunder. We intend, gentlemen, to preserve this relationship to you. We intend that you shall not go off to the sea-board, to Charleston, Savannah or Richmond, or anywhere else, but shall stand by us, and we will stand by you, and our growth and our power shall be together. You may set that down as a fact, do what you please. If you will not come to us, we will come to you. "Mahomet will come to the mountain," &c., &c. Gentlemen, let me give you a history of New-Orleans. In her infancy she bid fair to be a very colossus, and to outstride, in her march to commercial greatness, almost every other mart upon the continent, making of herself another Tyre, or Sidon, or Venice, of whom it has been said in poetry—

"The trade and commerce of the city
Consisteth of *all* nations."

New-Orleans has suffered herself to sleep soundly in the arms of all the prosperity which the God of nature seemed to have showered upon her. Like Achilles of old, she conceived that a Deity had lent her armor, and, as the pet child of destiny, she must be for ever invulnerable. Bewildered in her dreams of eastern magnificence and rank, as she contemplated herself at the very foot and receptacle of all the greatest and most magnificent rivers upon earth, which rippled in their distant sources among the mighty gorges of the Rocky Mountains,

——"Where rolls the Oregon,
And hears no sound, save its own dashings"—

with fifteen great states of the confederacy claimed to be inalienably tributary to her, and as many more, perhaps, in embryo; with a position which looks out upon the beautiful and glowing islands of the gulf, now cursed by tyranny, and where one of the darkest tragedies of the present century has been lately enacted;

and looking over equatorial climes, traces the magnificent, yet undeveloped empires of South America—the connecting link between two great continents, with almost the control of that isthmus-connection, over which it has been fondly conceived the rich commerce of Eastern climes might be diverted—New-Orleans, like a pet child of destiny, laughed the doubter into scorn, and said unto herself, "Go to—let us take our rest—eat, drink and be merry;" and who shall gainsay us? Let the waves beat; we are upon the everlasting rocks, against which their fury shall be expended in vain. We shall tithe and tax, and levy contributions upon the world, as we hold the keys of so much of its wealth! Shall we delve and spin, who are Nature's great custom-house officers, administering her tariffs and her revenues? Away with your fears and your admonitions;

"We care not, fortune, what you us deny,
You cannot rob us of free nature's grace,—
You cannot shut the windows of the sky."

This was New-Orleans; but what is New-Orleans now? Where are her dreams of greatness and of glory? Where her untold wealth in embryo? Whilst she slept, an enemy has sowed tares in her most prolific fields. Armed with energy, enterprise, and an indomitable spirit, that enemy, by a system of bold, vigorous and sustained efforts, has succeeded in reversing the very laws of nature and of nature's God—rolled back the mighty tide of the Mississippi and its ten thousand tributary streams, until their mouth, practically and commercially, is more at New-York and Boston than at New-Orleans. Thus have the fates mocked and deceived us in promising rank and greatness so long as the mouth of the great rivers should remain at our doors! Well might we exclaim, in the language of Macbeth to the Weird Sisters—

"Accursed be the fiends
That palter with us in a double sense,
That keep the word of promise to the ear,
But break it to the hope!"

New-Orleans is now the prodigal son, who has wasted his substance in riotous living. She has come to herself. Her conversion has been sudden and little less than miraculous. What the shock of all the North could not effect, came almost from her very doors. It was to be expected the North would steal from us: thrift belongs to them; but to think of the presumption of a little neighbor, whom we had a long time been intending to extinguish, some convenient day, in our *overwhelming greatness*—MOBILE—to think of Mobile coming in for a share of spoils, and boasting that, by a rail-road, she could strike at our last fortress, and leave us so poor that none might do us reverence, by emptying the Ohio and the Tennessee into her basin.

Gentlemen, though I honor and respect the energy and spirit of Mobile, this was the unkindest cut of all, and it has roused the dormant energies of New-Orleans. Her citizens stand to their arms, and they invoke you to stand by them. They have determined to intercept their trade, which is about stealing off to Mobile and Charleston, and bring back much that has already gone to the North. They have revived the road they projected to your capital, and actually commenced 15 years ago, and would strike entirely through your state for the Ohio River.

Gentlemen, these new roads are commenced under bright auspices. All the capital and enterprise of Louisiana and of New-Orleans are pledged to the completion of the road to Jackson, in the State of Mississippi. Already the company is formed, and the engineers are in the field. Louisiana will complete this road, and that within a few short years. Mississippi has resolved that the work shall not be stopped there: her citizens are meeting in county assemblages and general conventions, and pledge themselves to go on with it. I have just returned from a tour entirely through the state, and found the rail-road fever only a little less than the political. The planters are out of debt, and have the means to subscribe largely, and the state has a large surplus in her treasury, which she will appropriate. There are two great routes advocated, in addition to the Mobile and Ohio road, which passes through the state, both of which project from the neighborhood of her capital. One of them takes the direction of her north-eastern counties, and will strike the Tennessee River at some point, which shall intersect with the road you are proposing from Nashville to that point. The other road will extend due north, enter your state, and strike for Jackson, in Madison county, to intersect there with the Mobile and Ohio road, and proceed on a common track thence to the Ohio River, opposite Cairo, where the Illinois Central Rail-road will then make the rail-road connection complete and almost unbroken, from the gulf of Mexico to the Great Lakes. Should an intersection not be practicable with the Mobile and Ohio road, the New-Orleans road will then take a due northerly course, through the counties of Fayette, Heywood, Gibson and Weekly, in Tennessee, to the Kentucky line.

It is in behalf of these improvements I am here to speak to you. Gentlemen, extend them a ready help. The subject is high above all local considerations and rivalries. They are magnificent works. You cannot be content with a connection with Charleston and with Louisville. These roads will throw you at once upon the Atlantic and the gulf, upon the Great Lakes and the mighty North-west. This is your destiny. You will be in the heart of the world. Your beautiful capital shall become the Athens, as New-Orleans will be the Carthage or the Rome, of the Western Valley!

Gentlemen, the people of New-Orleans propose to hold, on the first Monday in January next, a great convention in that city of the people of all the Southern and South-western states, for the purpose of concentrating the strength and energy of them all upon a system of rail-roads, which shall radiate through all our limits, and raise us to a level in this particular with the North. A committee was appointed to prepare and issue an address to the people, a copy of which I hold in my hand, and to visit the states and legislatures for the purpose of addressing them. I have the honor to be included in that committee. We invite you to this convention, and trust that you will be represented by your most enlightened and enterprising citizens. Such men coming together from every part of this wide region, must exercise hereafter a great influence upon public opinion. Much valuable information will be elicited, and great practical results follow. Such conventions have ever been found powerful means of advancing great causes. They are the great engines of popular action. It was but the other day a Southern Merchants' Convention assembled in Richmond. Several great internal improvement conventions have been held at Memphis, St. Louis, and Chicago. The extreme South-west has never moved until now, and what point could be more interesting and important for the meeting of this great rail-road convention than New-Orleans. And indeed, gentlemen, if there was wanting other considerations to induce the people of the South-west to enter upon the construction of a system of rail-roads, extending through every part of their limits, it would be easy to find them in the peculiar position which they sustain with relation to the rest of the world. They have an interest in each others' prosperity, founded upon common hopes, and fears, and dangers. Menaced, as they are, from so many quarters, it becomes them, in every possible way, to strengthen themselves *at home.* The interests of Mobile, New-Orleans, Charleston, or Savannah, in each others' advancement, are stronger than their interest in the advancement of Boston or New-York. These interests should preclude all jealousies and rivalries, and induce a generous co-operation in every instance where the benefit of the whole South is at issue. Such a course cannot be in conflict with the individual interests of any. By opening or creating new avenues of trade and production, and extending our operations at home and abroad, it is possible for these cities, and all others in our midst, to go on enlarging, and increasing, and extending their influences, without at all affecting the progress of each other. In so wide a field there will be room for all. The progress of Boston has *not* destroyed New-York, but has rather diverted her energies into new and profitable channels. It was an idea of the Middle Ages, as barbarous as it was false, that one community could only advance at the expense of another. The benefits of trade are reciprocal. Light up the torches of industry at home, said Benjamin Franklin to his countrymen, on finding that all hope from British tyranny had fled. This shall be our salvation. We shall be feared and respected in proportion as we are strong and powerful. We shall demand and receive our rights, and not entreat and compromise for them, as we are often forced to do.

It may be an unwelcome truth, but we cannot disguise it—the institutions, and, of course, the very existence of the South, are in constant danger. The hands of all mankind seem to be against us. All the great powers of Europe menace our institutions. If we had made our peace *forever* with the North, looking into the distant future, the danger is still pressing and great. We want *physical* strength, the sinews of defences and war. These will come from *diversified* industry. It was this that enabled Britain to resist the shock of Napoleon, and of all the world. *She was the workshop of the world!*

There is no hope for the South but in this. She cannot recede. She must fight *for* her slaves or *against* them. Even cowardice would not save her. One of Homer's heroes thought that cowardice would be justified if men might live for ever; but even in that deep shall we not find a greater deep still opening to devour? Let us do our parts like men, and the consequences will be controlled by God.

I am not afraid of the South and of slave institutions. All spirit has not yet died. In the best periods of the history of the country the South was the controlling power. Her enterprise "is not dead, but sleepeth." I cannot forget the early commercial history of the South—I cannot forget that she had at one time the largest rail-road in the world, or that one of her citizens, Stephen Elliott, was the first to project a great rail-road connection from the Atlantic to the Mississippi valley. One of her citizens died in the service of this work. Many of you recollect the visit of Robert Y. Hayne to your capital, and the burning eloquence with which he spoke to you upon this subject. Yes, gentlemen, the South and *slave institutions* have, in all the brightest periods of history, enacted the highest parts in the drama. The Roman slaveholder carried the eagle and the legions to the end of the earth, and made Italy the theatre of the world's glory. The Greek slaveholder penetrated almost to the frosty Caucasus—

> "Shook the ars'nel,
> And fulmined over Greece
> To Macedon, to Artaxerxes' throne."

All the civilization, arts, sciences, literature, laws, everything that was glorious and great in ancient times, sprung from the *southern* states of Greece and Rome, and the southern slaveholders, whilst the Scythian and Scandinavian barbarians of the north dwelt beneath the earth in their mountain fastnesses. When our own continent was discovered, it was only in the South, in Peru, and in Mexico, that any civilization or arts were discovered. May it not—and it will not, if we are true to ourselves—happen again that southern civilization shall be overthrown and crushed out, and trampled under foot, by the powers which shall be brought against it?

I will detain you but a little longer, and that will be with my legitimate subject of rail-roads. When Mr. Stephenson, of England, in 1832, was advocating the Manchester line, they laughed at his idea that an eventual speed of twelve miles an hour might be attained. Soon after, the London Quarterly made infinite sport of the proposition that eighteen or twenty miles could be reached. We should as soon expect, it said, the people of Woolwich to suffer themselves to be fired upon by one of Congreve's ricochet rockets, as trust themselves to the mercy of such a machine, going at such a rate. In the present year, upon the Great Western Road in England, an average speed of forty-eight miles per hour has been attained without stoppages; and we learn that, for a short distance, over seventy miles has been reached; and that scientific man, Dr. Lardner, would not fix the practical limit at short of two hundred miles an hour! A member of Parliament declared, in opposition to the

Manchester Road, that a rail-road could not enter into competition with a canal. Even with the best locomotive the average rate would be 3¼ miles per hour; which was slower than the canal conveyance. The Buffalo and Albany Road runs side by side with the great canal of New-York, a distance of 350 miles, and has conducted such extraordinary freights and travel, that it has been found necessary to build another parallel road of greater length, from Dunkirk to the city of New-York. The Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road transports coal and iron at 1½ cents per ton, which is as low as the canals, or, all things considered, as freights on western rivers. When Mr. Clinton was advocating the Erie Canal, a member of the legislature asked, inquiringly, where the water was to come from to fill up this great ditch—"You need give yourself no uneasiness," said another; "the tears of the people will fill it." And yet rail-roads are in their infancy; for only twenty-two years ago there was not in our broad land a single locomotive engine, says the Rail-Road Journal, in successful operation. In this period, freight and travel upon them have cheapened one-half to two-thirds. Cheaper modes of construction and management are adopted; and if, in the next twenty years, anything like the same progress takes place, river navigation will be entirely abandoned, even for the heaviest and least valuable products; the old father of waters will become, as some one has said, useful only to water cattle. Time is everything—it is money. Who will use even your magnificent floating palaces, which keep you seven to ten days in the passage to New-Orleans, when, on the wings of the locomotive, at as cheap an expense, (for this can be done for $15,) in thirty-six hours you may light upon that gay metropolis, transact your business, and be comfortably again on the way home? This, too, without danger. Why, gentlemen, your floating palaces are but floating Ætnas. You sleep upon the crater which is belching forth the elements of dismay and death, and which, in a single instant, may hurl you and yours into eternity. The mortality of western steamers is frightful. You were as safe among the cannon of Buena Vista. On the northern rail-roads not one passenger in a million is killed—on the English, not one in five millions—on the German, not one in twenty millions; whilst on the western rivers, the average killed will almost be *one in every two thousand!* I would almost take the bold ground, that more persons have been destroyed in the last five years, from steamboat accidents of every sort in the west, than have been destroyed on all the rail-roads in the world from their first beginning up to the present moment.

Glorious, then, have been the results of this age of rail-road improvement. In the period of only twenty years, nearly three thousand millions of dollars have been expended in the world in their construction—a sum twice as great as the value of the whole slave population of all the Southern states together. The annual savings from industry, which it required to do this, amounts to $140,000,000—equal to the whole foreign export nearly of all the productions and wealth of our republic.

Gentlemen, if we were to add together all of these great works, and stretch them forward in a continuous line, it would have a length of 26,485 miles—more than sufficient to belt this great globe. What a glorious triumph is here of human art and industry! You have heard of the tap of the British drum being answered from British fortification to British fortification round the world—of the Spanish empire on which the sun never set,—of the car of progress, rolling onward through the world, carrying with it all nations and people. Here we have a more glorious realization than either. Stretch out the links of your magnificent railways. Start the locomotive. Vulcan has seized, as it were, the reins of the chariot of the sun, imitating the daring rashness of Phæton of old. The blazing, burning, and restive steeds prance furious onward on their course—onward, and onward—yet in the check and control of the master charioteer. A speck upon the horizon, it roars and rushes on to become a speck upon the opposite horizon. All nations, tongues, and kindreds, look on and wonder, but the car rushes on with terrible and resistless energy. Thus, around and around this great globe revolves the "car of progress," carrying with it light, and life, and civilization—warming up and animating the countless millions like the god of day himself in his eternal orbit. This, gentlemen, is the result of *human* skill, and enterprise, and energy! Truly, may we exclaim in the language of Scripture, "God made man perfect, but they have sought out many inventions;" and I trust there will be no show of irreverence when I say of him, he has seized upon one of the attributes of Deity in this, that "he maketh the earth his footstool, and walks upon the wings of the wind."

ART. V.—NEGRO-MANIA.*

This is too useful a work to be lightly passed over with the short notice we gave it in our December number. A most valuable compilation it is on the subject of the races; a work of which it would be difficult to show all the merits in a review, for almost every line and word of it deserves to be paused upon. It is itself a review of, and selection from, sundry distinguished authors, who have boldly dared to face the storm of fanaticism, and in spite of the almost universal prejudice of the world, to roll back its tide of error, and with the godlike power of intellect to pronounce the almighty fiat, "Thus far, and no farther!" Some names unknown to science are introduced, to prove by arguments of common sense the necessity of those relations which science shows to be inevitable.

The author of this compilation makes no pretence to originality, but his work is not therefore the less meritorious, and perhaps it is even the more useful, as he has in many of his authorities given such names as only the grossest ignorance can refuse to bow to. A collection of judicious selections, judiciously commented upon, forms in itself a volume of infinite value; and while we disclaim the ability of laying before the public, in a short review, all its merits, we are anxious, as far as we can, to draw popular attention to it. The aim of our author is to *popularize* his subject, to make attainable to the every-day reader the results of learned investigation, and to let every man find within his reach a compendium of such authorities as he often could not afford to purchase, or may not have leisure to study in full. Most warmly do we wish him success in his experiment, and most heartily recommend his work to all. It is time that the subject should be investigated in all its bearings.

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* NEGRO-MANIA: being an examination of the falsely assumed equality of the various races of men. By John Campbell. Philadelphia: Campbell & Power. Octavo, pp. 549.

Among the authors cited by Mr. Campbell, we find advocates both for the unity and the diversity of man's origin. Prichard, &c. have been boldly quoted, while Morton, Lawrence, Knox, Smith, Browne, Gliddon, &c. are called upon, and most triumphantly, to prove the fallacy of their conclusions. Many strong names which the author might have summoned on his own side of the question, he has (partly perhaps from superabundant material) left aside. From among ourselves, Nott—no mean authority—should perhaps not have been entirely forgotten; but such oblivion may well be pardoned in consideration of what he *has* given us, and he has from a very proper motive drawn his resources less from Southern men, than from Englishmen and Northerners, among whom certainly no one can look for any weakness or bias towards our Southern institutions, in the decision of a question which is of such vital importance to *us*. It is singular, however, that the great Agassiz should not have been named by him. The opinions of Mr. Agassiz upon this subject are well known, and it shows the richness of material—the overwhelming mass of proof, that such a supporter could be dispensed with.

Our author enters only incidentally upon the question of the origin of the races, and rather turns the force of his argument to prove their inequality. The races exist, and exist with different powers, different instincts, and different capacities. These differences are inalienable and unchangeable. Such are, in few words, the propositions of his argument, and every authority quoted (even that of Prichard, the principal upholder of the unity theory,) tends to confirm this position. Whenever and however men have appeared upon this earth, (we, in common with our author, consider the diversity of origin proved beyond dispute,) here they now are—unlike in all things—with the marks of race stamped ineffaceably upon them, in body and in mind; in form, color, instinct and reason—differing in all, and having differed, as is most indisputably proved by historical monuments for four thousand years, and by every philosophical deduction must continue so to differ. Man's handiwork will scarce bring about a revolution in despite, as Carlyle would say, "of the immortal gods." Should he try to force it, forgetting the necessary conditions of his existence, "which Nature and the Eternal Powers have by no manner of means forgotten, but do, at all moments, keep in mind, these, they will at the right moment, with due impressiveness, perhaps in rather a terrible manner, bring again to our mind also."

The highest capacity of man, and its noblest use, is the discovery and execution of the Almighty behests,—thus enabling him to second instead of opposing the beautiful order of God's developed thought in creation. If the negro be an inferior man, the struggle against God's will, which aims at putting him upon the same footing as the superior, is only not an impious work, in so far as it is a blind and a foolish one. Folly, unfortunately, often leads to consequences fatal as vice, and there is nothing more mischievous than active ignorance. In the fanaticism which now actually desolates some of the most favored and beautiful parts of our globe, threatening others even at the risk of dragging to earth the high-reared monuments of man's civilization, we find vicious malevolence and ignorance combining their power to raise some higher law than any which God has sanctioned; and because the black man cannot reach the level of the white, they would even drag down and degrade the white to *his* capacities.

Can it be that in an age when science walks abroad, astonishing the world by a progress hitherto unequaled in her annals—when no longer, with snail-like advance, she labors the ascent to knowledge, but rather leaps forward to her magnificent conclusions—when she girdles the world with steam, and flashes her lightning thought, even with lightning speed, through the expanse of a continent—when we see her votaries, (in the eloquent language of Professor Lieber,) "like priests of nature, revealing her great mysteries and showing thought,—one thought,—the thought of God, pervading the universe and its phases"—Oh! can it be that this is to be swept aside, or rather crushed down to the level of a Haytien civilization? Can it be, that the great *one thought*, that *thought of God*, so beautifully pictured out even in the lowest, as in the highest of his works, is to be tinkered at and defaced, patched and plastered, by a set of mad-men, whose one idea seems to be built upon some whining, Wilberforcian, Clarksonized wail of "black brethren" and "negro improvement?" Verily, nature "suffereth long and is kind," or, ere this, had her curse fallen upon us. We struggle against her, we fiercely resist her teachings, and fancy that these poor heads of ours—to say nothing of black Sambo's and Cuffee's—can regulate matters by a higher law than hers. But the time cometh when our probation can last no longer. Then, and in "rather a terrible manner," it is to be feared, we will receive our lesson! Is it not even now, alas, beginning? What is this cry over Europe, echoing even to our own shores? What means this darkly-shadowed caricature of good—this horrible disfigurement of Christian charity—which, but that it stalks in terrible reality before us, would seem like the mockery of some fearful dream? The angel form which we have gazed upon and worshiped as Christian charity and brotherly love, now suddenly starts forth, grinning upon us in hideous deformity of vice, and gibbering out its horrible obscenities of "socialism" and "communism," drags along upon its track the shouting mob, who, in their ravings for "negro abolition" and "universal equality," trample under foot at once God's law and man's law—virtue and decency. The demon is unchained. This wide-spread and wider-spreading evil figures forth, not badly, the beast of the Apocalypse, unto whom "was given a mouth speaking great things and blasphemies;" "and he opened his mouth in blasphemy against God to blaspheme his name," "and power was given him over all kindreds, and tongues, and nations."

The strength of this hideous power is now interesting itself largely in the negro cause; and because the innovators find the impossibility of putting into execution their crude theories among their white brethren, and more nearly equalized population, they, in their agony for action, look about for something tangible, something less impossible, and fancy that it is found in the abolition of negro slavery. Alas! for the mistaken folly of those who, in thus acting, act sincerely. Their well-meaning and officious ignorance is pushed on by the powerful lever of fanaticism to ends from which they would shrink in affright could they see them in full development; but which, in half-way execution, they rejoice over, as the poor idiot gazes in delighted wonder and warms his fingers by the blaze which is demolishing his dwelling, fancying the while that he has done a wise thing in the application of the spark which has lighted to their destruction his own and his neighbors' homes.

Alas for their folly! But wo! wo! a wo of darkness and of death! a wo of hell and of perdition to those who, better knowing, goad folly on to such an extreme! This is indeed the sin not to be forgiven; the sin against the Holy Ghost and against the spirit of God. The beautiful order of Creation, breathed down from Almighty intelligence, is to be moulded and wrought by fanatic intelligence! until dragged down at last to negro intelligence!!

The Almighty has thought well to place certain of his creatures in certain fixed positions in this world of ours, for what cause he has not seen fit to make quite clear to our limited capacities; and why an ass is not a man, or a man an ass, will probably forever remain a mystery to our limited intellects. One thing, however, he has in his mercy made clear enough, viz., that by no manner of education; no stocks, braces, nor regimental drillings; no problems, theories, nor definitions; neither by steam nor by telegraph—neither by mesmerism nor by chloroform, can our unfortunate brother ass, whether mentally or corporeally, be induced to consider himself as a gentleman, and act accordingly. *He*, at least, is not capable of attaining the *white* civilization of this our 19th century. We hope that our philanthropic friends will allow us this. We would fain have some sure ground to stand upon, but do not feel quite certain that they may not come with some new-fangled theory of communism to knock this platform also from under our feet. Believing, however, that (until the spirit of improvement rises a step or two higher) they will allow us our position, we would beg them to instruct us upon what principle of justice this unfortunate brother ass—this hirsute relative—should be so be-deviled and trampled upon. Why should he not lie amidst feathers and velvet, as well as the best in the land? And why, above all, must he help work to make such feathers and velvet comfortable lodgings for his so-called betters? God-given intellect and power to attain, count for nothing in this modern system of arguing. The ass has as good a right to the possession of intellect as the man; and if God has not given it to him, we must remedy the injustice by some patent "free-and-equal" system. The process is easy enough. If the ass cannot stand on two legs, knock the man down to all fours, (nothing is simpler,) and *vive la fraternité!* Why did not the Almighty save us all this trouble, and make the ass a man, or the man an ass, from the beginning? Truly, 'tis a problem hard to solve, and poor donkey, with his lamentable braying, comes as near an explanation as all our philosophizing can do. God made the world—God gave thee there thy place, my hirsute brother; and according to all earthly probabilities and possibilities, it is thy destiny therein to remain, bray as thou wilt. From the same great power have our sable friends, Messrs. Sambo, Cuffee & Co. received their position also; with which position, allow us to remark, the worthy ancestors of Messrs. Sambo, Cuffee & Co. have continued perfectly satisfied for some four thousand years, (longer, perchance, but records go no farther,) and their descendants would, most undoubtedly, have so continued; but behold, Satan, as when

> "Squat like a toad, close at the ear of Eve
> Assaying by his devilish arts to reach
> The organs of her fancy,"

comes now in the likeness of an "all men are born free and equal" advocate, to raise

> "Vain hopes, vain aims, inordinate desires"

in poor Cuffee's hitherto quiet brain! Alas, "my poor black brother!" thou, like the hirsute, must do thy braying in vain. Where God has placed thee, there must thou stay. "You, Quashee, my pumpkin, (not a bad fellow either, this poor Quashee, when tolerably guided,) idle Quashee, I say, you must get the devil *sent away* from your elbow, my poor dark friend! In this world there will be no existence for you otherwise." To the immortals, perchance, this tempest in a tea-pot, this little hubbub on our little globe, may look trifling enough, they seeing very certainly that at the end of some score of centuries all things will go right again. Quashee will either have gone back to his quiet corner in this world's civilization, or, perchance, have vacated it forever in favor of some higher claimant. It matters little in all likelihood to the supreme spectators of this world's game, what confusion of checking and check-mating may be going on in our little ant-hill. The thought of God must conquer finally, and the score or so of centuries more or less would be but a moment in its development. But to us, my brothers, and our children, these twenty centuries, what are they? White and black, were it not well to think on this a little? Truly to us, my biped brethren of all complexions, this abolitionist Satan is preparing (if so be we chain him not in time) a sorry chase through this world's existence. Only the hirsute can flourish then; ranging at will through beauteous regions, cast back again to wildness and the desert. There nature's bounty may furnish grass to the hirsute, but, truly, no bread to the biped. Black Quashee cannot understand this; God has not given him the intellect for it; and if we teach him to bray out for liberty, i. e., for idleness, verily it is as easy for him to bray to that tune, as to any other. But the white man! Of what is he dreaming, when he listens even for a moment to such cant? To him God *has* given intellect, (would he but use it!) to see the truth. Brother, (for if acting conscientiously, and no devil's firebrand sent by Satan to our undoing, even as a brother, although differing, we hail thee,) brother, thou speakest, perchance, in ignorance. Hast thou ever lived along side of Quashee? noticed his habits, his mind, his character, his tastes, his virtues and his vices? Clothed him in health, and nursed him in sickness? cheered him in merriment, and comforted him in sorrow? rejoiced with him, and suffered with him? laughed with him, and wept with him? Thou *hast not;* but there be those who have; "go thou and do likewise," and when (if ever) thou dost, *thou wilt cease to be an abolitionist.* The white man, whose heart truly warms to the fate of the negro, would cease to agitate this question in that moment that he would become well acquainted with him, for thus would he learn its utter impracticability. At the hideous thought of amalgamation, even the abolitionist white-blood shudders. The white and the black race can only exist together in their present relations. Abolition is the extinction of the one or the other.

"*I* to herd with narrow foreheads, vacant of our glorious gains,
Like a beast with lower pleasures, like a beast with lower pains!
Mated with a squalid savage—what to me were sun or clime?
I the heir of all the ages, in the foremost files of time!"

The civilized man must retain his position, or perish.

We beg pardon of Mr. Campbell, however, whom we have, like a garrulous host, kept for a long time, hat in hand, ready to make his bow to the reader, while we, instead of remembering our duty of introducing him, have been prosing away upon his text. Mr. Campbell is, he tells us, a member of the Social Improvement Society of Philadelphia; at divers meetings of which society, "various and talented speakers," (we use Mr. C.'s words,) *white and black,* joined in the discussion of this question—"Can the colored races of men be made mentally, politically and socially equal with the white?" This is a rather startling outset; and judging from the results usually emanating from such parti-colored associations, our first impulse was to withdraw from Mr. Campbell's extended hand. Gulping down the doubt, however, we boldly enlist under the motto he adopts—"Prove all things; hold fast that which is good"—and we are rewarded by finding that he honestly and manfully meets the question. Here, then, we have a collection of extracts, selected by a northern man, who has entered freely into the discussion of the subject with minds of all hues,

"Black spirits and white, blue spirits and gray,"

enthusiast and fanatic; whose important scientific authorities are all, without exception, Englishmen or northern United States men. Surely no bias should be here expected in favor of southern United States institutions, and yet a stronger defence of them it would be difficult to find.

In answer to the question, "Can the colored races of men be made mentally, politically and socially equal with the white?" our author first states the indisputable fact, that never, from the most remote antiquity, until now, has there appeared a race of negroes, that is, "men with woolly heads, flat noses, thick and protruding lips, which has ever emerged from a state of savageism or barbarism to even a demi-civilization." "Look to the West Indies, to Brazil, to Australia, to the Gold Coast, to Zanguebar, to Congo, to Senegambia, to Ashantee, nay, to the civilization under his imperial highness Faustin the First, Emperor of Hayti, and answer me, ye Garrisons, and Phillipses, and Burleys, and Fulsoms, and Smiths, what has this race done in five thousand years?" To those who advance the argument, that the negro has never had an opportunity for development, because the white man has always oppressed him, our author says, "they forget that the latter portion of this proposition refutes the former. If the white man has always oppressed the negro, it goes to establish the fact claimed by me, that the white man is mentally superior, because, if the white man has been always powerful enough to debar the negro from improving his intellect, it establishes the complete force of my views—'that no amount of education or training can ever make the negro equal in intellect with the white;' 'knowledge is power;' and it is evident to all, that under no circumstances has the negro race ever been able to compete with the white." "We see around us, in every direction, evidences of the fact, that the negro is naturally inferior to the white; but it is unfair to institute comparisons where this race is held in bondage by the white. We will give them all the advantages of a fair examination. We will travel to that quarter of the globe which seems to be the native land of this race, and to which they appear to be indigenous. We will go where the white man has never oppressed them," and what do we find? "Monumental ruins of Dahomey, forty ages do not look down upon you! Strewn columns of Ashantee, where shall we find you? Echo answers, 'where?' Decaying towers of Zanguebar, shall any traveler ever discover your nameless and undiscovered and undiscoverable foundations? Sculptured temples of Guinea, what hierologist shall be able to decipher your extinguished hieroglyphics?" "If only one great negro name could be produced to redeem a whole race, then I will retract all I have ever said of negro inferiority,—but this one only name, this *rara avis*, this white blackbird, this phœnix, is not forthcoming; 'you cannot make a silk purse out of a sow's lug,' is an old and homely adage, but not the less true;

so can you not make anything from a negro but negroism, which means barbarism and inferiority." "Have the woolly-headed races of men ever produced one, even only one man, famous either as lawgiver, statesman, poet, priest, painter, historian, orator, architect, musician, soldier, sailor, engineer, navigator, astronomer, linguist, mathematician, anatomist, chemist, physician, naturalist, or philosopher?" Not one, in the whole expanse of the world's history, for 4,000 years; and yet there are men who dare to babble of circumstance, disadvantage, oppression and universal equality. What might the negro have done, if,—and if,—and if?—What might the jackass have done, if,—and if,—and if? The proof is as fair in the one case as in the other—the same in kind, differing only in degree. As God made them, so they have been, so they are, and so they will be; the white man, the negro and the jackass, each to his kind, and each to his nature; true to the finger of destiny, (which is the finger of God,) and undeviatingly pursuing the track which that finger as undeviatingly points out. Where rebel reason in its little pride of might would try to change that track, there does the restless vehemence of disorganized nature prove its own avenger. The negro, become master, extinguishes that civilization which his nature abhors, to revel in savageism to which his instincts limit him. Philanthropy, or rather philo-donkeyism, has never yet experimented how the ass would act under similar circumstances; but we are fully authorized, from logical induction, to conclude that green grass and the wilderness would be the order of the day under his *régime*, and humanity, both black and white, would be fairly kicked out of existence. To the white man then, the philosopher, poet, orator, historian,—to him

"The heir of all the ages, in the foremost files of time,"

it matters little whether donkeyism or negroism predominate; either, to him, would be extinction.

To return to the question of inferiority of the negro, we have then, in all honest reasoning, the full right to deduce it from constant, unvarying, and unstruggling inferiority of position; and the observations of naturalists all go to confirm this position by his anatomical inferiority. Mr. Campbell quotes largely to this effect, and gives us extracts even from Dr. Prichard, acknowledging, that by a comparison with the highest of the simiæ, the chimpanzee and the orang, there is apparent, in certain parts of the skeleton, "an approach towards the forms of these latter species."*

Lawrence, after enumerating the various points of anatomical difference, continues: "In all the particulars just enumerated, the negro structure approximates unequivocally to that of the monkey. It not only differs from the Caucasian model, but is distinguished from it in two respects: the intellectual characters are reduced, the animal features enlarged and exaggerated." Knox, of the dark races generally, remarks: "The whole shape of the skeleton differs from ours; and so, also, I find, do the forms of almost every muscle of the body." Of the Hottentots, he says: "Their skeleton presents of course peculiarities; such as the extreme narrowness of the nasal bones, which run into one in early age, not unfrequently as we find in apes. But it is the exterior which is the most striking; and this, no doubt, is wonderful. No one can believe them to be of the same race with ourselves; yet, unquestionably, they belong to the genus man."

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* Our quotations, let it be understood, are henceforward invariably taken at second hand from Mr. Campbell. It is our object to show what he has done, and to give his book, as far as in our power, the circulation which it so well deserves.

The now exploded assumption, that the ancient Egyptians were negroes, is met by Mr. Campbell with such a mass of authorities, that we must refer the reader, who is curious on the subject, to his book. One can but smile in reading them, at the idea that such an error could ever have obtained credence enough to make it worth combating. "Now that we distinguish the several human races by the bones of the head, (remarks Lawrence,) it is easy to prove, that whatever may have been the hue of their (the Egyptians) skin, they belonged to the same race with ourselves;" "that they formed no exception to that cruel law, (a cruel law! which God has made! and shall *we* better it?) which seems to have doomed to eternal inferiority all the tribes of our species which are unfortunate enough to have a depressed and compressed cranium." The great Cuvier had already long before pronounced, that "neither the Gallas, nor the Bosjesmen, nor any race of negroes, produced that celebrated people;" and Morton* (a name at which we bow our heads in sorrow, that so early should have been closed a life whose labors science can ill spare) gives a stream of decisive evidence on the subject. A translation of a deed on papyrus of the reign of Ptolemy, Alexander First, giving a description of the persons, parties to a sale of land at Thebes, describes one of them as of a dark complexion, the remaining five as sallow. The Egyptians themselves, on their monuments, have represented the men red, the women yellow; and both with features entirely distinct from the negro, who appears among them with all the characteristic features of his race, and always in a condition of bondage or inferiority. "Negroes (observes Morton) were numerous in Egypt, but their position in ancient times was the same that it now is, that of servants and slaves." "The hair of the Egyptians resembled in texture that of the fairest Europeans of the present day."

Equally futile and equally rejected by science, is the assumption, that climate or habit of life can account for the differences of race. "The physical or organic characters which distinguish the several races of men, are as old (says Morton) as the oldest records of our species." We frequently find one race inhabiting an extent of country which serves, at once, to prove the irrationality of the conclusion, that climate can have had any influence in stamping upon it its characteristic differences. "The flat face of the Chinese (observes Lawrence) not only extends throughout that vast empire, which covers nearly forty degrees of latitude and seventy of longitude; but, also, over the neighboring regions of Central and Northern Asia, the north of Europe and of America, over a very large portion of the globe, including every possible variety of heat and cold, elevation and lowness, moisture and dryness, wood, marsh, and plain. That European Creoles in the West Indies, in America and in the East, have preserved their native features in all instances where no intermixture of blood has occurred, is proved by the uninterrupted experience of the Spaniards, Portuguese and English, who have had foreign colonies in climates most differing from their own, longer than any other nation. The modern Gipseys and the Jews afford examples of peculiar and distinctive casts of countenance being preserved in every climate." Volney has attempted to account for the peculiarities of the negro features in the following whimsical manner. We translate, for the benefit of those to whom the French may not be quite familiar. "I observe, that the features of the negro represent precisely the state of contraction which our faces assume when struck by the light and a strong reverberation of heat—then the brow frowns, the ball of the cheek rises, the eyelid contracts, and the mouth draws itself together (*fait la moue.*) Is it not natural that this contraction which takes place continually in the naked and hot country of the negro, should become the permanent characteristic of his face? —Unfortunately (answers Lawrence) for these speculations, the negro features occur in numerous tribes spread over a very great extent of country, with various climates, and in many instances, where the heat is by no means excessive; the character, too, is permanent after any number of generations, when the negro is taken into other climes." Blumenbach seriously quotes some wiseacre, even more fanciful than Volney, who would fain account for the flat mouth and swollen lips, by the fact that the mothers carrying their children on their backs, "in the violent motion required for their hard labor, as in beating and pounding millet, &c., the face of the young one is constantly thumping against the back of the mother." *Povero Bambino!* one would imagine that thumps violent enough to flatten its poor little nose, must keep the juvenile martyr in a state of constant depletion from that important organ. What, moreover, becomes of this theory in a barbarous country like our own, where, when the mother goes to work, the child is, by order of her brutal master, actually taken from her until her labor is done, and consigned to its cradle, or to the arms of a nurse, who holds it in the ordinary fashion for the carrying of such commodities, while basking in the sun, or sitting by a comfortable fire, according to circumstances. Farther—to call in science to our aid—"All the peculiarities of the negro cranium (says Lawrence) exist in the fœtus. The prominent jaws, flat nose, and other characteristics, are found as strongly marked in the youngest embryo as in the adult. That climate has no transmittible effect on the skin, is evident from the fact, that the children of the husbandman, or of the sailor whose countenance bears the marks of other climes, are just as fair as those of the most delicate and pale inhabitants of a city. Nay, the Moors, who have lived for ages under a burning sun, still have white children, and the offspring of Europeans in the Indies have the original tint of their progenitors. On the hypothesis which assigns the varieties of mankind to the operation of climate as their cause, we should expect to find in Africa all tribes under the equator of the most intensely black color; the tinge should become lighter and lighter as we proceed thence towards the South, and the complexion ought to be white, when we arrive at regions which enjoy a European climate. This, however, is by no means the case. The Abyssinians on the east, with dark olive color and long hair, are placed near the equator, and surrounded by negroes. In the same part, also, the Gallas, a great and barbarous nation, having, according to Bruce, long black hair and white skin, verging to brown, occupy extensive regions under the equator itself. On the other hand, as we proceed from the equator towards the south, through tribes of negroes, we find the black color continue with undiminished intensity. It is known in the West Indies, that the Congo negroes, in the blackness of their skin and woolly hair, equal any tribe of Africans. The Island of Madagascar, which is cooled by the mild breezes of the Indian Ocean, and ought, therefore, to continue a white race, has two kinds of natives: one of olive color with dark hair, the other true negroes. When we consider how large an extent of Africa is occupied by the black woolly-haired negroes, and that these regions vary in their latitude, their elevation, and every other point, that they include sandy deserts, coasts, rivers, hills, valleys, and very great varieties of climate, the conclusion that these adventitious circumstances do not influence the color or other properties of the race, is irresistible." Knox says—"My esteemed friend, Dr. Andrew Smith, informs me, that he attentively looked at a family descended from forefathers who came to South Africa with the first settlers. Three hundred years then had elapsed since their first arrival. Their descendents, at this moment, are as fair as the fairest of Europeans." Cases there are of white families, under similar circumstances, being lost to the whites and only known in their negro descendents; but there is abundant proof that this is the result of constant mingling with negro blood, until the white has run out; which the commonest observer knows must be the case where the supply of white blood is not constantly renewed. We in the United States of America, whether North or South, seem to be in little danger of changing our skins; and our children are as fair as their Saxon or Celtic ancestors, although occupying the very grounds on which the red man lived and died, leaving his scattered graves as memorials of ages of possession.

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* It is but justice to this distinguished man to remark, that we have ourselves heard Agassiz (himself the greatest of living naturalists) say, that he was an authority inferior to *none* in ethnology.

The wool of the negro, another mooted point, our author most satisfactorily settles for us, through the minute and learned argument of P. A. Browne. Most unwillingly do we pass over a discussion, showing such close research, and so triumphantly carried through. Our bounds will not, however, allow its insertion, and we can only entreat our readers to study it for themselves. The garbled view which our very limited extracts could give would be doing it injustice. Suffice it to say, that Mr. Browne not only proves his point by producing fact upon fact in a way which it is difficult for a candid mind to oppose, but gives us also an insight of the extremely slovenly and careless manner in which Prichard occasionally pushes forward his positions. The covering of the negro-head is most indisputably *wool.* Hair will not felt, but wool will; and the covering of the negro's head will felt—has been felted." With reference to the color of the skin, which, a few lines back, we were discussing, Mr. Browne cites the authority of M. Flourens, an eminent French physiologist, who "found four distinct layers between the cuticle and the cutis;" the second of which, he says, is a mucous membrane —a distinct organized body, underlaying the pigment, and existing in persons of dark color only. M. Flourens sought in vain for this membrane between the cutis and outer lamina of the epidermis of the white man; and yet this is the seat of the discoloration produced in his complexion by exposure to the sun. From these examinations, this distinguished naturalist and anatomist was able to pronounce, definitely, that the discoloration in the skin of the white man is totally different in kind from the cause of blackness in the negro, and, therefore, justly concludes, that the negro and European are separate species of beings."

Have we yet given enough proof of difference of race and negro inferiority? Lawrence remarks, that the difference of color "between the white and the black races is not more striking than the pre-eminence of the former in moral feelings and in mental endowments." The negroes "indulge almost universally in disgusting debauchery and sensuality, and display gross selfishness, indifference to the pains and pleasures of others, insensibility to beauty of form, order and harmony, and an almost entire want of what we comprehend altogether under the expression of elevated sentiments, manly virtues and moral feeling. The hideous savages of Van Dieman's Land, of New-Holland, New-Guinea, and some neighboring islands, the negroes of Congo, and some other parts, exhibit the most disgusting moral, as well as physical portraits of man." And yet, we repeat with Carlyle, "not a bad fellow either, this poor Quashee, when *tolerably guided.*" Guidance, however, he does need. Colonel Charles Hamilton Smith, whose predilections are, as Mr. Campbell remarks, in favor of the oppressed and degraded races, who resided long in the West Indies, and continued for years his investigations on the subject of the races, says of the negroes, "War is a passion that excites in them a brutal disregard of human feelings; it entails the deliberate murder of prisoners, and victims are slain to serve the manes of departed chiefs. Even cannibalism is frequent among tribes of the interior. The perceptive faculties of the children are far from contemptible, bearing good comparison with the white, but they drop behind about the twelfth year, when the reflective powers begin to have the ascendency," and when the mind of the white is just developing itself. Is this not an approach to the state of the brute, whose mind, or instinct—call it as you will—is certainly, in early infancy, more developed than the human being? A lamb, a calf, or a colt, of a day or a week old, shows to much greater advantage than an infant of the same age.

"Collectively (continues Col. Smith) the untutored negro mind is confiding and single-hearted, naturally kind and hospitable. *Both sexes are easily ruled*, and appreciate what is good, under the guidance of common justice and prudence," but "they have never comprehended what they have learned, nor retained a civilization taught them by contact with more refined nations, losing it as soon as that contact has ceased. Conquest with them has been confined to kindred tribes, and produced only slaughter. Even Christianity, of more than three centuries, in Congo, has scarcely excited a progressive civilization. Thus, even the good qualities, given to the negro by the bounty of nature, have seemed only to make him a slave, trodden down by every remorseless foot, and to brand him, for ages, with the epithet of outcast." "And, true it is, that the worst slavery is his lot at home, for he is there exposed to the constant peril of becoming also a victim, slaughtered, with the most revolting torments. Tyrant of his blood, he traffics in slavery as it were merchandise; makes war purposely to capture neighbors, and sells even his own wives and children."

Is the negro made for slavery? God in heaven! what are we, that because we cannot understand the mystery of this Thy will, we should dare rise in rebellion and call it wrong, unjust and cruel? The kindness of nature fits each creature to fulfill its destiny. The very virtues of the negro fit him for slavery, and his vices cry aloud for the checks of bondage. Would it not be more worthy of thinking men, instead of endeavoring to brand with infamy a system so evidently marked out by the finger of God, rather to combine their efforts to make that system what it should be? Instead of driving the slaveholder, by an interference which puts his property and life in danger, to acts of harshness and restraint entirely unnecessary by the laws of nature; would it not be more wise, more human, and more philanthropic, to aid in removing obstacles, to soften difficulties, and thus prevent the abuses of a system which, sanctified by the laws of nature, needs but the fair operation of those laws to be like every other result of God's thought, beautiful in the undeviating order of creation? Beautiful it is in its fulfilment; hideous only in the unnatural struggle which, opposing man's law to God's law, rouses the evil passions of men in a vain effort to correct the works of Omniscience. But let us sum up this branch of our subject in the words of Dr. T. D. English, from a letter addressed to the author of "Negro-mania." "The steady advance of the white species meets with no parallel in the black. The latter has proved itself, when left to itself, to be incapable of progress. Even when taught by a superior species, it soon retrogrades to hopeless barbarism. To give it dominance is to extinguish agriculture, destroy the mechanic arts, and root out science. Such an apparent exception, as may be seen in Liberia, gladly as the philanthropist may hail it, proves only the power given by the infusion of other blood. The mulattoes there, as here, have the most intellectual force. When these wear out, as they will in time, a recurrence to the characteristics of the predominant original race will reproduce barbarism, unless, indeed, this calamity be averted by a renewed amalgamation. Nor do the isolated cases of negro smartness in this country prove anything more than the value of a Caucasian admixture. Nature has marked, by unerring lines, the distinction between the species, and her tokens cannot be wiped out, by either the sophistry of the negrophilist, or the cant of the fanatic. The manifest moral, intellectual, and physical inferiority of the negro issues from the decree of God, which no efforts of man can either alter or abrogate. Even modification must be but partial at least. It is the destiny of the negro, if *by himself, to be a savage*, if *by the white, to be a serf.* He may be a savage in name and in fact, as in Africa, or in fact only, as in Hayti. He may be a serf in name and in fact, as in the Southern states, or in fact only, as in the Northern States; but savage or serf he must be. No man who values himself, who has any regard for sound morality, or who feels any desire to see intellectual progress made certain, can join in the absurd attempt to raise the negro to his own level. A movement for such ends is necessarily impotent, and can only result at the best for the negro, in the degradation of the white. Kindness to these unfortunate beings is the duty of every man. They may be styled human beings, though of an inherently degraded species. To attempt to relieve them from their natural inferiority is idle in itself, and may be mischievous in its results. Calculated as it is to arouse evil passions, it may one day provoke a necessity not to be contemplated without horror. It may lead to a war between the species, which must result in the extirpation of the negro. True philanthropy—not that sickly sentiment which neglects the interests of the white laborer to cant about the black—but a true and honest regard for the best interests of mankind, will maintain the negro undisturbed in the relation which God has marked out for him." What that relation is, can, we think, be pretty fairly deduced from such testimony as we have here seen advanced. The alternatives are serfdom, or savagedom; a state of equality being, we think, honestly proved impossible. The antagonism of races is working itself out in every instance where two races are put in collision by the quicker or slower extinction of the inferior and feebler race. The only exceptions to this rule, which the world has ever seen, are where the beneficent system of serfdom (*i. e.* slavery) has come to the rescue and protection of the weaker race; and nowhere has this system been exhibited in more perfection, and freer from the abuses (for every system has its abuses) with which it is stained, than in the negro slavery of our Southern states. Knox has shown us everywhere the white blood treading down and exterminating the darker races. "The Saxon (he remarks) will not mingle with any dark race, nor will he allow him to hold an acre of land in the country occupied by him." "Already we have cleared Van Dieman's Land of every *human* aboriginal; Australia, of course, follows, and New-Zealand next. There is no denying the fact, that the Saxon—call him by what name you will—has a perfect horror for his darker brethren. Hence the folly of the war carried on by the philanthropists of Britain against nature." "The Anglo-Saxon has already cleared out Tasmania. It was a cruel, cold-blooded, heartless deed. Australia is too large to attempt the same plan there; but by shooting the natives as freely as we do crows in other countries, the population must become thin and scarce in time." "It would be revolting (says Col. C. H. Smith, whom we have already quoted as the advocate of the dark races) to believe that the less gifted tribes were predestined to perish beneath the conquering and all-absorbing covetousness of European civilization, without an enormous load of responsibility resting on the perpetrators. Yet this fate appears to be sealed in many quarters, and seems, by a pre-ordained law, to be an effect of more mysterious import than human reason can grasp." Revolting though it may be to our eye, which pierces but the outer thought of creation's plan, if this be really the pre-ordained law of our existence, shall we better matters by struggling against it? One only door seems opened by nature to prevent such a catastrophe, and that is, through the beneficent system or serfdom, or otherwise, slavery. The word is of little import: the thing is the same. The negro, docile in subjection, attached, like the household dog, to his master—only in proportion to his intellect in a far higher grade of being—is satisfied and happy in the half-civilized condition, which, with us, his imitativeness enables him to attain. Liberated—in other words, unprotected—and starving for want of protection, the dog, as the negro, returns to the untaught habits and instincts of nature. Thievish and wolfish, the dog, poor fellow, is easily disposed of, and a gun, or a rope, settles the difficulty—as far as he is concerned. The negro is, it seems, according to Mr. Knox, occasionally disposed of by the same summary process. In more civilized communities, where law protects him, he will still, if the black population be comparatively small, dwindle and disappear before the antagonism of race, as we see now in the process of exemplification in our Northern states. But where the proportion is in an opposite ratio, the negro, whose individual is, as a man, protected by the law, becomes soon, in the aggregate, too powerful for the law. Then comes the clash of race, hideously developed in all its horrible proportions. The brutish propensities of the negro, now unchecked, there remains no road for their full exercise, (unless the white man voluntarily retreats before him,) but in the slaughter of his white master, and through that slaughter he strides (unless he himself be exterminated) to the full exercise of his native barbarity and savageism. And this, then, is the consummation so devoutly to be wished! Congo civilization! Hottentot civilization! Haytien civilization!!!

Jamaica is fast treading on the tracks of Hayti. British philanthropy has already succeeded in making the rich lands of that fair isle so utterly valueless, that the white man must soon abandon his right to live in it. And the vast and beautiful territory composing the southern and southwestern states of America,—this territory, whose giant youth is governing the world by its vast produce, which holds the reins of Europe, and spins round it, even with the fine web of its cotton fibre, a net-work, the destruction of which is the destruction of civilization—is this country too, to be abandoned to the desert and the waste, to negroism and barbarity, that abolitionism may chaunt its *Io pæans* over our ashes?

Abolition is not the abolition of slavery. Equality is no thought nor creation of God. Slavery, under one name or another, will exist as long as man exists; and abolition is a dream whose execution is an impossibility. Intellect is the only divine right. Intellect seeks freedom from its own proper impulses, and attains it by its own proper power. The negro cannot be schooled, nor argued, nor driven into a love of freedom. His intellect cannot grasp it, nor can he love an abstraction, which it is beyond his intellect to understand. The apostle of freedom can to the negro be nothing more than the apostle of temporary license and permanent savageism. "Heaven's laws are not repealable by earth, however earth may try."

We have in our article entirely forgotten the odious plea for amalgamation—a thought from which nature shrinks; but as all points are to be met, we are glad to find it in Mr. Campbell's book most ably discussed by more than one learned author. Knox, over and over again, strongly pronounces against the possible permanent existence of a hybrid race, and as such he unhesitatingly classes all mulattoes. "Nature's laws are stronger than bayonets." "No mixed race will she support." P. A. Browne, whom we have already noticed as so triumphantly meeting Prichard on the question of the woolly-head, comes here to our assistance in a manner equally decisive; confuting him from his own words, and proving his utter incapacity for the argument he undertakes. Let us remark, *en passant*, of Prichard, that he has been hitherto strangely overrated. His ponderous tomes are calculated, from their imposing appearance, and their real merit as a collection of facts, to make a great impression upon that large proportion of readers who read without close observation, and adopt without dispute the conclusions of their author; but we are glad to believe that a more just appreciation is now being formed of his labors. We have seen a notice, among other similar articles, of a review of his works, in the form of a treatise, by Dr. Caldwell, (Cincinnati: James,) by which the false positions of Dr. Prichard are said to be ably exposed, and the unphilosophical tendency of his work thoroughly combated. We have not room for the argument of Mr. Browne, but he satisfactorily proves, what many of us know from our own unlearned observation, that no mulatto race is self-perpetuating. They are subject to the law of hybrids, and can only continue to exist so long as they continue to receive supplies from the original races whence they sprang. These ceasing to flow in, with equipoised proportions, the predominating race gains the ascendant. Could we suppose, therefore, the possibility of a general amalgamation of the races, the certain result would be, that as the dark races by far outnumber the white, the white must, by the course of nature, become in time extinct. But such "is not the ultimate issue; no, not that." God has implanted in the white races, for their own preservation and for the perfecting of their high destiny, that strong antagonistic feeling of race, which holds them aloof in their purity. The white and the dark races can never amalgamate. "Nature's laws are stronger than bayonets"—stronger than the full tide of abolition and colonization societies, with all their old women and negro men, Lucretia Motts and Fred. Douglasses to boot. Wilberforce was a good man, no doubt; a well-meaning, sentimentally good man; but all the vice, and all the crimes of all the hardened and ruffianly criminals whom the gallows has disposed of for the last century, could not, if allowed the full scope of their career, have accomplished one-tenth of the ill—one shadow of the evil, which this same sentimental goodness has occasioned. The first piddles in little murders, the last sweeps away nations. Goodness, which in its well-meaning ignorance, assumes an antagonistic position to nature's laws, becomes infinitely mischievous. Those laws, embodying, as they do, the thought of God, must finally prevail; but, alas, for the generations upon whose destinies such antagonistic influences act! For them at least the beautiful thought of God, the all-conquering order of nature, becomes a fearful scourge. Placed in antagonism with it, they cannot destroy it—it must destroy them. The thought of God prevails, and generations are swept away. *Depart, ye quack-ridden incompetent!*

"Every one knows (says Blackwood) how easy it is to get up a shout upon any vague pretext of humanity, and how frequently the credulity of the people of England has been imposed on by specious and designing hypocrites. With this set of men, Africa has been for many years a pet subject of complaint. They have made the wrongs of the negro a short and profitable cut to fame and fortune, and their spurious philanthropy has never failed to engage the support of a large number of weak, but well-meaning individuals, who are totally ignorant of the real objects which lie at the bottom of the agitations." "An abolition meeting (remarks Mr. Campbell) is held at some town in Ohio, New-York, or Pennsylvania; speeches are made, negro wrongs are dwelt upon, Burns is quoted, 'A man's a man for a' that,' and Terence also, '*Homo sum et nihil a me alienum puto*,' 'My black brother,' and 'All men are born free and equal.' The meeting terminates—an impression is made, and frequently even upon strong minds. There are no libraries within reach; the different authors' works are too expensive, and the abolition poison runs through the mental system, as hydrophobia through the physical, until the patient becomes a rabid, raving fanatic." The author goes on to say that his volume is intended to popularize the subject, and thus to counteract this evil. Most heartily do we wish him success. Full time it is that something were doing—sinking as we are, to use the words of Carlyle, "in deep froth oceans of 'Benevolence,' 'Fraternity,' 'Emancipation-principle,' 'Christian Philanthropy,' and other most amiable-looking, but most baseless, and, in the end, baleful and all-bewildering jargon." "Never till now did the sun look down on such a jumble of human nonsenses." "We have a long way to travel back, and terrible flounderings to make, and in fact an immense load of nonsense to dislodge from our poor heads, and manifold cobwebs to rend from our poor eyes, before we get into the road again, and can begin to act as serious men that have work to do in this universe, and no longer as windy sentimentalists, that merely have speeches to deliver, and speeches to write." "Our own white or sallow Ireland, sluttishly starving from age to age on its act of parliament freedom, was hitherto the flower of mismanagement among nations; but what will this be to a negro Ireland, with pumpkins themselves fallen short, like patatoes? Imagination cannot fathom such an object; the belly of Chaos never held the like. The human mind in its wide-wanderings has not dreamt yet of such a 'freedom' as that will be." "Terrible must be the struggle to return from our delusions, floating rapidly on which, not the West Indies alone, but Europe generally, is nearing the Niagara Falls."

We agree with Mr. Campbell that a full and open discussion on the subject of the races, is the likeliest mode of warding off the terrible evil which hangs over us. We are hardly sanguine enough to believe with him that "there is a rapid change going on in the public mind of our northern states favorable to negro slavery;" but we do believe, that nothing would go farther towards expediting such a change, than the bold expression of such fair and honorable views as he has not hesitated to advance. "Let our citizens (he says) understand the real merits of the question at issue, and there is no fear but a healthy tone will be given to public opinion, and that maudlin, silly humanitarianism will give way to true ideas and plain practical common sense." "It is only necessary to demand discussion—open, fair and free discussion—to prove to our working citizens the extreme wickedness of freeing the negro under any pretext at all." Fain would we believe this; and from our hearts we thank Mr. Campbell for his manly effort in the true cause of civilization and humanity. It is indeed a noble cause; and high the meed of praise to those who contribute to unmask the hideous form which now, under the assumed name of philanthropy, covering like the veiled prophet of Khorassan its fearful loathsomeness with the garb and appurtenances of divinity, claims the worship of the world.

> "Not the long-promised light, the brow whose beaming
> Was to come forth all-conquering, all-redeeming,
> But features horribler than hell e'er traced
> On its own brood."
>
> "There, ye wise saints, behold your light, your star,
> Ye *would* be dupes and victims, and ye *are*."

L. S. M.

DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE.

PROGRESS OF THE TRADE, COMMERCE, MANUFACTURES, &c. OF ST. LOUIS, MISSOURI.

No. I.

We have received, through the courtesy of the Chamber of Commerce of St. Louis, a most valuable report, drawn up by a committee, of which J. A. Brownlee, Esq., is chairman, and which sketches the history of the industry of St. Louis for a series of years past. We shall republish this paper entire, but will be compelled to divide it into three or four parts.

PROVISION TRADE OF ST. LOUIS.

It is only a few years since the country lying north of us, and bordering on the Mississippi and its tributaries, was dependent upon the earlier settled districts of the West for a large proportion of the pork and flour required for its sustenance; and it was not until about the year 1840 that it ceased to look to the valley of Ohio for its supplies. About this time, a small surplus, consisting of meat, badly handled, and improperly cured, began to manifest itself; yet it was so unimportant, until the year 1844, as to attract but little attention; nor was the business of cutting and curing for distant markets commenced in the city of St. Louis until the winter of 1845–6, when some 16,000 hogs were packed. This led in the following season to the cutting of some 30,498 hogs, and was attended by a corresponding increase in the receipts from the country. In the succeeding season, the packing of St. Louis reached 63,924 hogs, whilst in the winter of 1848–9 the business was extended to 83,502, and subsequently, in 1849–50, to 115,253. During this period, there was a corresponding increase in the receipts from the country.

In the year 1850 there was a falling off, alike in the number of hogs packed in St. Louis, and in the receipts of their products from the country, which is accounted for in part by the continued drought of the preceding summer, by which the crop of corn in some large districts was materially injured, but mainly by the diversion of a large proportion of agricultural labor to the mines of California, and its associate enterprises.

That the trade in provisions, and the raising of stock, are progressive, and will continue to increase in a corresponding ratio with the improvement and development of the resources of the immense country lying around and above St. Louis. is, in our opinion, beyond question; nor will we be disappointed to find these among the more important as well as more profitable branches of the commerce of our enterprising city.

Laboring under all the difficulties and embarrassments incidental to untried enterprises in a new country, the business of cutting and curing provisions, especially in the small country towns, was imperfectly and unskilfully done. The product, or manufactured article, was often unsightly, and little calculated to be preserved during the summer months; the inevitable consequence was a loss to the packer, and a prejudice against his work.

As the product of the country increased, other and more experienced parties were induced to engage in the trade. A rapid but thorough change in the character and quality of the so-called "Missouri Bacon" has been effected; from being *the poorest*, it is now regarded among *the best* which finds its way to our southern and northern Atlantic ports; whilst in Liverpool and London the character of St. Louis provisions stands deservedly higher than those from any other city of the West.

The commerce in provisions passing through this market, amounts annually to some $3,500,000. This, as we have seen, is the work of the past eleven years; the greater part having been consummated in the last four to five years. That it may, if properly fostered, be extended from some six to eight millions of dollars in the ensuing ten years, is not by any means improbable.

As the commerce in provisions has not been limited to their imports, but has been materially increased by the number of hogs and beef cattle slaughtered and packed within the city, we have prepared, and herewith submit a table showing the number of hogs and beef cattle packed in St. Louis from the 1st November, 1845, to March 1st, 1851.

Imports of Provisions into St. Louis during the years 1844, '45, '46, '47, '48, '49 *and* '50, *commencing* 1*st January, and ending* 31*st December:*

ARTICLES.	1844.	1845.	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	*1851.
Pork, barrels and tierces......	29,945	15,702	48,981	43,692	97,662	113,862	82,173	100,164
Beef, " "	4,280	5,264	1,716	10,485	17,235	17,216	7,987	7,817
Lard, " "	12,293	7,652	26,462	34,171	73,968	74,121	54,960	11,764
" Kegs..................	12,699	6,659	14,730	8,595	14,180	18,885	13,099	12,560
Bacon, casks and hhds.........	19,225	6,180	11,803	14,425	29,423	16,240	25,707	22,384
" Pieces..................	1,840	1,490	16,180	12,800	66,220	35,240	58,689	9,657
Bulk meat, pounds..............	136,333	261,754	630,765	285,797	8,455,000	9,651,622	1,419,530	574,463
Tallow, casks and bbls.........	942	863	1,419	2,329	1,195	1,604		

* From September 1, 1850, to August 31, 1851.

Statement, showing the number of HOGS *and* BEEF CATTLE *packed in St. Louis, from 1st November*, 1845, *to 1st March*, 1851:

	Hogs.	Beef Cattle.
Winter 1845-46	16,000	—
" 1846-47	30,498	—
" 1847-48	63,924	—
" 1848-49	82,502	2,148
" 1849-50	115,253	2,158
" 1850-51	90,000	—

FLOUR, WHEAT, ETC., OF ST. LOUIS.

Tabular statement, showing the receipts by river, of flour, wheat, corn, oats, and barley, for the past five years, viz: from 1846 to 1850, and from September 1st, 1850, to September 1st, 1851.

	1846.	1847.	1848.	1849.
Flour, bbls.	220,454	308,568	387,314	306,412
Wheat, bushels	1,838,925	2,432,377	2,194,786	1,792,535
Corn, "	688,649	1,016,318	699,693	305,383
Oats, "	95,612	202,365	243,700	252,291
Barley, "	10,150	57,380	55,500	46,263

From September 1st, 1850, *to September 1st*, 1851.

		Bushels.	Bbls. Flour.
Wheat	999,755 sacks	equal to 2,090,000	equal to 440,000
"	27,712 bbls.		
Flour			287,234
Corn	911,360 sacks.		
Oats	489,540 "		
Barley	42,628 "		

The land receipts of all these articles are considerable, but cannot be definitely ascertained. In flour and wheat it may be estimated equal to 73,000 bbls; giving thus, for total receipts of flour and wheat, equal to 800,000 bbls.; for which there is estimated to be a city demand of, say 3,000 bbls. per week, a coast and trade demand of 3,000 bbls. per week, leaving for New-Orleans 9,000 bbls. per week.

The coast and trade, with the New-Orleans demand, would make 12,000 bbls. per week, which is found to be about the average shipments.

The trade embraces from the lower part of the Ohio river, the Cumberland, Tennessee, Mississippi and White and Red rivers. At New-Orleans it passes into city consumption, and to Alabama, Florida and Texas.

Comparatively little is taken regularly east from New-Orleans—that trade taking the Ohio flour from flat-boats; the grade of it being more nearly graduated to the inspection and eastern trade.

St. Louis flour has therefore the main consumption of this valley, and enjoys the preference from its position, Available almost every day to river navigation, and furthermore as the great variety of soil and climate furnishes wheat to its mills, affording the millers the privilege of selections and mixing, by which uniformity can be obtained, not available in local selections year after year.

The milling power of the city is large, there being twenty mills with 58 run of burrs, capable of grinding 3,500 bbls. of flour per day.

The supplies of wheat are not equal to this full capacity, the consumption of immigration above, and the artificial channels east, diverting it, and from being an exporter of wheat five years since, St. Louis is now occasionally forced by her local trade to look to the Lakes, the Ohio and Wabash, for considerable quantities of wheat, and stands with a higher wheat market than any other city in the West.

In corn, barley and oats, there are large wagon receipts, and sales here deliverable at points below present accuracy in giving the figures. The local consumption is large by distilleries and breweries, in corn and barley; and the latter article has the past season been received from Buffalo for use at this place.

The before mentioned position of constant river navigation, makes St. Louis in these articles, as in flour, the feeder of consumption, and at higher prices than regulated by export.

HEMP STATEMENT—ST. LOUIS.

We append a tabular statement of the receipts of hemp and hemp product, at the port of St. Louis, for the past nine years.

The aggregate receipts during the past year greatly exceed those of any previous year since this great staple became an object of attention in our state. In 1847, the receipts reached 11,018 tons, a circumstance, however, measurably owing to the non-reception during the previous year of the crop due, the receipts in 1846 being only 5,387 tons.

Although the average prices during the past season have ruled lower than at any time during the past five years, yet has the quality been better, not to mention the superior manner in which it has been prepared for market.

YEARS.	No. bales of hemp.	Bales equal to ton hemp.	Aggregate tons hemp.	No. coils of rope.	Coils rope equal to ton hemp.	Aggregate tons.	Pieces of bagging.	Pieces bagging equal to ton hemp.	Aggregate tons.
1843	17,580	8	2,198	9,622	20	481	3,270	11	297
1844	59,292	8	7,411	12,575	20	624	3,150	11	287
1845	30,997	8	3,875	8,890	20	444	4,217	11	383
1846	33,853	7	4,836	5,122	20	256	3,243	11	295
1847	72,222	7	10,317	10,789	19	568	1,432	12	128
1848	52,226	7	7,461	13,390	19	705	1,095	12	91
1849	46,290	6	7,715	19,831	18	1,102	688	12	57
1850	60,878	6	10,146	22,506	18	1,250	1,232	12	103
1851	65,448	6	10,908	34,491	18	1,941	2,998	12	250

2.—COMMERCE OF BALTIMORE, FROM THE 1st OF JANUARY, 1851, TO 1st JANUARY, 1852.

We are indebted to that able and indefatigable journal, the Baltimore Prices Current, for the following interesting statistics, showing the progress of our sister city in all the elements of commercial wealth. The results are most gratifying:

"A happy augury of the future extent of our southern trade is presented in the astonishing increase in business with that quarter within the year. This increase is in part attributable to the fact, that planters, finding that the high price obtained for cotton the last two years likely to continue, neglected the growing of corn and raising of hogs, and turned their attention to that article; and were therefore chiefly dependent upon markets northward for their grain and provisions. It is also owing somewhat to a sectional preference. To render every facility and encouragement to this growing trade, our merchants have already put afloat the first of a line of propeller steamers to Charleston, named the Palmetto, and the second of the line is about being contracted for. Ere another twelvemonth shall have rolled by, we hope to see the same means of communication established with Savannah and other southern ports trading with us.

"In little more than a year hence, we have the promise that our connection by rail-road with the Ohio River will be completed. There is much cause for congratulation that an event, long looked forward to with so much hope and solicitude by the people of Baltimore, is so near at hand. Upon the Baltimore and Ohio Rail-road are founded our chief anticipations as to the future of our city—its success, now so well established in the belief of every one acquainted with rail-road enterprises in the United States, will secure the perfection of our western trade, and the advancement of Baltimore to greater wealth and influence than she has hitherto ever enjoyed.

"With the completion of our Western Rail-road, the necessity of direct communication with Europe by steam will become more than ever apparent. A bill for a line of steamers from Baltimore to Liverpool is again before Congress, and we sincerely trust that our representatives may succeed finally in securing the patronage of government in our efforts to supply a want long felt in our trade with Europe. Whilst other cities are having steamers running to every port with which their intercourse is in any way important, it seems strange that Baltimore, enjoying such a large trade with the old world, should be so deficient in this respect.

"We are happy to announce that arrangements are now being made between the Dauphin & Susquehanna Coal Company and R. M. Magraw, Esq., President of the Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road Company, for the introduction of a large proportion of the products of the mines of that company into our market. The quality of the different kinds of the article obtained at these mines is represented as very superior; and there is every prospect of a large demand. We understand that an experimental trip will shortly be made, with a view to ascertain the capacity, cost, &c., of this article over the road, delivered in our city.' The extension of the Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road from Harrisburg to Sunbury, under the provisions of the charter obtained at the last session of the Pennsylvania Legislature, is looked forward to with lively interest by the mercantile community. Independent of the great object of its construction, viz., a direct connection with the lakes, its line will open up to us a region of country teeming with the mineral productions of that wealthy state; and it embraces even now on its proposed route no less than four lateral rail-roads, leading directly to a like number of coal mines, of which that of the Dauphin and Susquehanna Coal Company is one. We hope that our citizens generally will give their support to the efforts now being made by the enterprising gentlemen having charge of this matter of the extension of the Baltimore and Susquehanna Rail-road. It is a subject of vast importance to our city—indeed, second to none that now engages their attention."

Value of Imports from foreign countries at this port for 1851.

In American vessels	$6,106,106
In foreign vessels	1,137,857
Total value of imports for the year 1851	$7,243,963

Value of Exports for 1851.

Domestic produce in American vessels	$4,460,620
Domestic produce in foreign vessels	1,775,041
Total domestic produce exported	$6.235,661
Foreign merchandise in American vessels	$224,579
Foreign merchandise in foreign vessels	5,925
Total exports of foreign merchandise	230,504
Value of domestic produce exported, as given above	6,235,661
Total exports for 1851	$6,466,165

Value of foreign Imports and Exports at the district of Baltimore, commencing 1st of January, 1840, *and ending 30th September,* 1851.

Years.	Imports.	Exports.
1840	$5,109,274	$5,868,018
1841	6,109,101	4,997.633
1842	4,052.260	4,448,946
1843	3,607,733	4,740,042
1844	4.251,883	4,622,063
1645	3,356,670	6,256,276
1846	4,238,760	6,710,559
1847	4,146,743	9,826,479
1848	5,245,894	7,209,602
1849	5,291,566	8,660,981
1850	6,417,113	8,530,970
1851	7,243,963	6,466,165

Foreign arrivals and clearances, and their tonnage, in 1851.

Arrivals.	No.	Tonnage.
American vessels	343	90,002
Foreign vessels	147	30,183
Total for 1851	490	120,185
Total for 1850	467	

Clearances.	No.	Tonnage
American vessels cleared for foreign ports	332	81,329
Foreign vessels cleared for foreign ports	152	33,355
Total clearances for 1851	484	114.684
Total clearances for 1850	511	130,587

Table of Inspections of Wheat and Rye Flour, and Corn Meal, for the last eleven years.

	FLOUR.	CORN MEAL.			RYE FLOUR.	
	Bbls.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Half bbls.	Bbls.	Half bbls.
1841	628,974	459	10,736	34	3,831	22
1842	558,282	715	7,772	437	5,436	34
1843	560,431	535	13,359	821	8,401	45
1844	499,501	245	25,054	1,525	9,904	—
1845	576,745	631	23,949	1,450	6,518	24
1846	850,116	1076	40,942	1,744	5,402	—
1847	959,456	934	105,842	1,298	6,666	49
1848	736,441	333	60,225	1,322	7,520	105
1849	764,519	428	51,772	2,051	8,007	9
1850	896,592	272	42,403	3,369	5,419	22
1851	912,498	620	28,917	2,256	7,654	53

Tobacco Inspections at Baltimore for the last eleven years.

Years.	Maryland.	Ohio.	Virginia and other kinds.	Total.
1851	25,013	16,798	931	42,742
1850	27,085	13,965	783	41,833
1849	30,689	13,664	1,248	45,601
1846	23,491	9,702	703	33,906
1847	34,580	15,219	772	50,571
1846	44,416	29,626	754	71,896
1845	39,538	26,696	1,755	67,989
1844	32,249	15,464	1,244	48,957
1843	29,354	13,465	4,877	47,696
1842	33,759	11,278	1,439	46,476
1841	29,980	7,692	1,479	39,151

Exports of Tobacco from the port of Baltimore, for the last eleven years.

Years.	Bremen.	Rotterdam.	Amsterdam.	France.	All other places.	Total.
1851	12,654	9,694	4,154	2,327	5,292	34,124
1850	15,864	7,814	5,973	8,177	6,540	44,368
1849	18,821	13,783	8,725	9,562	1,033	51,924
1848	12,787	7,910	3,103	5,761	131	38,890
1847	22,967	7,819	11,388	7,889	1,895	53,482
1846	24,404	9,498	6,181	8,165	3,037	49,491
1845	26,832	18,171	10,944	7,183	2,880	66,010
1844	17,139	11,864	7,095	7,212	1,594	44,904
1843	16,990	6,525	7,325	7,932	3,822	42,594
1842	17,719	10,874	8,109	4,682	2,379	43,763
1841	16,373	7,918	5,169	3,814	2,519	38,001

Inspections of Flour and Meal in the city of Baltimore for the year 1851.

1851.	HOWARD-ST.		CITY MILLS.		SUSQUEHANNA.		FAMILY.	
MONTHS.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.
January	65,107	1177	21,496	2,164	35	—	4,099	—
February	56,686	882	9,655	1,112	119	—	1,945	25
March	47,132	925	14,128	3,119	2,551	—	2,189	25
April	39,352	825	19,464	1,789	2,468	—	1,850	25
May	46,100	482	24,562	3,236	3,472	—	3,360	25
June	31,957	457	19,069	1,678	3,552	—	1,285	—
July	31,257	272	22,501	1,675	1,405	—	2,918	65
August	34,533	380	41,872	2,212	921	—	2,294	25
September	27,253	282	31,191	1.981	1,655	—	3,194	—
October	45,669	434	37,635	2,283	500	—	3,579	120
November	42,037	190	37,335	2,143	2,413	200	3,663	—
December	62,936	754	32,764	1,780	308	—	3,918	86
Total, '51	530,019	7060	312,372	25,172	19,399	200	34,294	396
Total, '50	547,406	3656	283,420	23,632	17,028	38	34,923	304
Increase	—	3404	28,592	1,540	2,371	162	—	92
Decrease	17,387	...	—	—	—	—	629	—

Inspections of Flour and Meal continued.

1851.	TOTAL W. FLOUR.		RYE.			CORN MEAL.	
MONTHS.	Bbls.	Halves.	Bbls.	Halves.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Halves.
January	90,737	3,341	1051	—	170	3,630	240
February	68,405	2,019	1230	5	34	2,711	240
March	66,700	4,069	502	—	98	3,193	—
April	63,134	2,639	455	4	—	3,399	270
May	77,494	3,743	875	—	154	2,870	385
June	55,863	2,135	729	20	—	2,862	601
July	58,081	2,012	498	—	—	1,432	—
August	79,620	2,617	415	—	—	2,279	291
September	63,293	2,263	655	—	49	1,207	20
October	87,383	2,837	80	24	20	1,353	129
November	85,448	2,523	257	—	30	1,738	80
December	99,926	2,620	907	—	65	2,253	—
Total, '51	896,084	32,828	7654	53	620	26,917	2,256
Total, '50	882,777	27,630	5419	22	272	42,403	3.369
Increase	13,307	5,198	2235	31	348	—	—
Decrease	—	—	—	—	—	13,486	1,113

Report of Inspection of Fish in Baltimore, 1851.

	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	Condemned.	Total, '51.	Total, '50.
Mackerel, bbls	866	1,933	25,684	1,118	29,601	24,569
" halves	528	1,642	4,359	100	6,629	3,363
Shad, bbls	2,704	237	—	90	3,031	7,263
" halves	1,073	60	—	11	1,144	926
Herrings, bbls	20,480	1,300	—	624	22,404	29,262
" halves	1,488	—	—	25	1,513	918
Codfish, bbls	134	—	—	40	174	165
" halves	6	—	—	—	6	54
Scalefish, bbls	139	—	—	3	142	—
Salmon, "	55	12	—	—	67	24
Alewives, "	—	—	—	25	25	—
Swordfish, "	4	—	—	—	4	—
" ½ "	1	—	—	—	1	—
Rockfish, "	—	—	—	3	3	—

Imports of Sugar and Molasses, into Baltimore.

From New-Orleans, for the last ten years, from January 1st in each year, to 31st December.

	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.		
Years.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Trcs.	Bbls.
1840	7433	233	901	363	5317
1841	4184	11	678	521	5964
1842	6103	264	413	475	9805
1843	7642	741	1250	309	9541
1844	5172	114	586	75	4996
1845	12602	413	785	583	10150
1846	9845	517	407	201	6925
1847	6013	183	248	8	2907
1848	10279	3269	721	554	12703
1849	9851	2384	—	251	11066
1850	11066	3146	77	244	14715
1851	7174	3432	813	171	7615

From the West Indies, for the last eleven years.

	SUGAR.		MOLASSES.		
Years.	Hhds.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Trcs.	Bbls.
1839	10929	2164	2913	573	300
1840	8007	1905	5420	316	157
1841	8750	4006	4256	159	510
1842	10828	1252	3676	155	224
1843	7483	735	2769	163	15
1844	10885	536	5654	434	520
1845	5161	209	3600	248	430
1846	6541	224	5586	542	692
1847	18240	4236	7862	488	165
1848	14841	2393	6608	852	247
1849	12570	5654	5883	499	112
1850	11454	1420	6815	529	294
1851	16732	254	7638	3329	308

Vessels arrived at Baltimore during the year 1851, *exclusive of bay craft.*

	No. Ships.	B'ks.	B'gs.	Schrs.	Total.
January	5	11	28	95	139
February	8	24	31	81	144
March	7	15	26	115	163
April	11	14	31	86	142
May	7	19	27	91	144
June	8	10	30	71	119
July	4	25	30	77	136
August	11	23	38	79	151
September	16	24	31	82	153
October	14	17	30	66	127
November	7	18	22	73	120
December	5	14	22	54	95
Total, 1851	103	214	346	970	1633

Exports of Flour from Baltimore, commencing 1st January, 1851.

Where to.	This week.	Previously.	Total, 1851.
Great Britain	—	71946	71946
Hanse Towns	—	5851	5851
Holland	—	1081	1081
Brazil	—	135527	135527
Montevideo B. A.	—	13723	13723
Br. N. A. colonies	—	28465	28465
Venezuela	—	7396	7396
West Indies	160	128567	128727
Other ports	—	22247	22247
Total, 1851			414963
Total, 1850			317399

Exports of Tobacco from Baltimore, commencing from January 1, 1851, *and same time* 1850.

Where to.	This week.	Previously.	Total.	Same time, 1850.
Bremen	—	—	12654	15864
Amsterdam,	—	—	4154	5973
Rotterdam	—	—	9694	7814
Havre, Bordeaux, Marseilles,	—	—	2327	8177
England	—	—	1326	1955
Russia	—	—	602	1856
Austria	—	—	1850	600
Spain	—	—	1158	2129
Africa	—	—	24	54
W. Indies	—	—	166	13
Other ports.	—	—	—	44
Total hhds.	—	—	34124	44368

Flour Inspections.

Descriptions.	This week.	Previously.	Same time, 1850.
Howard-street	—	533549	549233
City Mills	—	324958	295236
Susquehanna	—	20399	17057
Family	—	34494	35171
Rye	—	7578	5480
Corn Meal	—	33145	45360

The above inspections are computed as barrels.

Tobacco Inspections, commencing from Jan. 1, 1851, *and same time,* 1850.

Descriptions.	This week.	Previously.	Total.	1850.
Maryland	—	—	25013	27085
Ohio	—	—	16798	13965
Virginia	—	—	—	—
Kentucky	—	—	931	793
Pennsylv'a	—	—	—	—

A Comparative Statement of the Imports at the Port of Baltimore, commencing January, 1850, *and* 1851.

Articles.	This week.	Previously.	Last season.
Bark, Peruvian, ceroons,	—	750	198^{4}
Coffee, Rio, bags	—	266240	150190
Laguayra & P. Cabello,	—	21081	24044
Maracaibo	—	5873	2750
Other ports	—	8114	6532
Coastwise	—	3885	3934
Cocoa, bags and qtls	—	4721	8593
Cocoa nuts, No.	—	M739	M532
Cotton, from			
New-Orleans, bales	—	3070	4015
Mobile	—	2737	1371
Charleston	—	12500	10000
Savannah	—	2950	2500
Apalachicola	—	677	1883
Other ports	—	7500	6000
Copper, pigs	—	—	—
Copper, bars	—	2898	3887
Dyewood—			
Logwood, tons	—	75	416
Fustic, tons	—	7	42
Fruit, Lemons, boxes	—	4411	2222
Oranges, boxes	—	15874	1632
Figs, drums	—	9787	3657
Figs, cases	—	356	994
Raisins, casks	—	625	252
Raisins, boxes	—	29065	22100
Guano, tons	—	27239	7397
Hides, from			
Buenos Ayres, Montevideo	—	80448	89293
Rio Grande	—	54693	62091
California	—	16473	—
Porto Cabello	—	16886	31580
Rio de Janeiro	—	—	32551
Other foreign ports	—	13268	13927
Coastwise	—	72026	42750
Horns, No.	—	M626	53060
Indigo, ceroons	—	110	281
Iron, bars	—	152254	76450
Pig, tons	—	1994	272
Bundles	—	50282	7500
Rail-road, tons	—	1333	22840
Rail-road, bars	--	22123	38432

Imports continued.

Articles.	This week.	Previously.	Last season.
Molasses, from			
Foreign ports, hhds...	—	7638..	6815
.. .. tierces.	—	2329..	527
.. .. bbls....	—	308..	294
Coastwise, hhds...	—	813..	77
.. tierces.	—	171..	244
.. bbls....	—	7915..	14715
Rice, casks.............	—	5397..	4003
Provisions, from New-Orleans—			
Beef, tierces.........	—	9..	347
Beef, bbls...........	—	1050..	26133
Pork, tierces.........	—	1726..	3899
Pork, bbls............	—	9769..	27978
Pork, bulk, tons......	—	30..	1214
Lard, tierces.........	—	1536..	2202
Lard, bbls...........	—	3985..	8034
Lard, kegs...........	—	1481..	25488
Pimento, bags..........	—	2869..	2270
Salt—			
Liverool, tons........	—	334..	20
Liverpool, sacks......	—	67228..	67577
Coastwise, sacks.....	—	59388..	23790
Cadiz, lasts..........	—	— ..	—
St. Ubes, moys.......	—	— ..	1129
West Indies, bush...	—	97626..	83595
Sugar, from			
Foreign ports, hhds...	—	16722..	11451
.. .. tierces.	—	322..	405
.. .. bbls....	—	2542..	1420
.. .. boxes..	—	3597..	3041
.. .. bags....	—	8310..	10300
Coastwise, hhds...	—	7173..	11066
.. casks..	—	450..	156
.. bbls....	—	3432..	3146
Tin Plate, boxes.......	—	6596..	4542

3.—COMMERCE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

In order to complete our statistics of New-Orleans for the year ending 31st August, 1851, we publish the following statement:

WESTERN PRODUCE BUSINESS.

This heading, as connected with our trade, embraces a great variety of commodities, of immense value, but our limited space will only admit of our noting the past season's operations in some few of the leading articles. In the supplies of Flour and Indian Corn there has been a material increase, as compared with last year, the receipts of the former since September 1st, being 941,106 barrels, against 591,986 barrels, and of the latter equal to 3,300,000 bushels, against 2,750,000 bushels. Of Wheat also, there has been an increased supply, but little or none of it has been exported, and only a very small proportion sold here, the bulk having been on account of our city mills, or for transmission to Alabama and Georgia. The receipts are equal to 180,000 bushels, against 110,000 bushels last year. Of Corn Meal, the receipts are 3,662 barrels, against 5,187 barrels last year. The total exports of Flour since 1st September, amount to 583,418 barrels, against 211,750 barrels last year. Of this quantity, 205,508 barrels were shipped to Great Britain, 145,340 to West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports. Of Indian Corn, the total exports have been equal to 1,300,000 bushels, against 1,060,000 bushels last year. Of this quantity, 135,000 bushels were shipped to Great Britain and Ireland, 265,000 to West Indies, &c., and the remainder to coastwise ports.

The annexed table exhibits the exports of Breadstuffs from the United States to Great Britain and Ireland since 1st September, compared with same period last year. By this it will be seen that there has been a very large increase in the exports of Flour and Wheat, while in those of Indian Corn there is shown a falling off of over fifty per cent. Nearly two-thirds of the whole has been shipped from the port of New-York.

	1850-'51.	1849-'50.
Flour, barrels......	1,379,643......	392,742
Corn Meal..........	5,553......	6,086
Wheat, bushels....	1,286,630.....	432,939
Corn...............	2,197,253.....	4,813,373

It is understood that the grain crops of the West are very fair, if not abundant; and this is fortunate for the South, where the corn crops have failed, even to a much greater extent than last year, when our planters were compelled to buy largely of the produce of the western farmers. At the same time the fine promise of the European crops, if realized, is likely to prevent a very high range of prices, by lessening the demand for export. It was early asserted by western dealers that the "hog crop" would be materially short of that of the previous year, and the correctness of this position would seem to be demonstrated by the very large falling off in the receipts of Pork at this market.

The decrease in the supply of Lard has been proportionate to that of Pork, and prices have been correspondingly enhanced. The total exports since 1st September, (all packages being reduced to kegs) are equal to 738,956 kegs against 1,554,849 kegs last year. Of this quantity, 188,353 kegs were exported to foreign ports, against 696,259 kegs last year, Great Britain having taken 41,663 kegs, against 425,830 kegs last year. The following table, showing the highest and lowest range of prices, according to quality, in each month, will exhibit the course of the market:

PRICES OF LARD.

	Highest. Cents per lb.	Lowest. Cents per lb.		Highest. Cents per lb.	Lowest. Cents per lb.
September	5¾ a 7½	5 a 7½	March	7 a 9	6½ a 8
October	5 a 7½	5 a 7½	April	8 a 11½	6½ a 8¾
November	6½ a 7¾	5 a 7½	May	8 a 11½	8 a 11¼
December	6¼ a 7½	6½ a 7¾	June	8 a 11½	8 a 10¾
January	7 a 9	6½ a 7½	July	8½ a 11	8½ a 10¾
February	7 a 9½	7 a 9	August	8½ a 12	8½ a 11

4.—MOLASSES TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

ANNUAL STATEMENT OF IMPORTS, EXPORTS, STOCKS, ESTIMATED CONSUMPTION, &c., FOR THE YEAR ENDING DECEMBER 31ST, 1851, EXCLUSIVE OF CALIFORNIA AND OREGON.

Receipts at New-York.	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bbls.	Value, 1st Jan. 1852.	Value, 1st Jan. 1851.
From Cuba	54014	3899	3606	15¼ a 22	22 a 26
.. Porto Rico	15401	555	477	16 a 26	23 a 30
.. St. Croix	1430	—	11	17 a 27	——
.. Surinam	814	65	82	17 a 20	——
.. Other foreign ports	503	—	—	— a —	——
Total receipts of foreign in 1851	72162	4519	4176	..	..
Same time last year	48484	2882	1060	..	..
From Louisiana, in 1851	479	572	31858	25 a 27	— a 33
.. Other coastwise ports	12009	672	8334		
Total receipts in 1851	84650	5763	44368		
Same time last year	68816	5645	46320		
Increase	15834	118	—		
Decrease	—	—	1952		

Total receipts at New-York, from January 1st, to December 31st.

	1851. Hhds.	1851. Tcs.	1851. Bbls.	1850. Hhds.	1850. Tcs.	1850. Bbls.
Total receipts, as above	84650	5763	44368	68816	5645	46320
Add stock, 1st January	3300	—	800	300	40	700
Total supply	87950	5763	45168	69116	5685	47020
Deduct exports and shipments to Canada	106	—	82	308	—	270
	87944	5763	45086	68808	5685	4675
Deduct stock, December 31	4000	—	500	3300	—	80
Taken from this port for consumption	83844	5763	44586	65508	5685	4595

—Or, about, in 1851	12,253,710 gallons.
Of which foreign, imported direct	9,107,780 gallons.
Or about, in 1850	10,029,028 gallons.
Of which foreign, imported direct	5,716,486 gallons.
Total consumption, 1851	12,253,710 gallons.
Total consumption, 1850	10,029,028 gallons.
Excess in 1851	2,224,682 gallons.

Total receipts at New-York, from foreign and coastwise ports.

	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bbls.		Hhds.	Tcs	Bbls.
1851	84,650	5,763	44,368	1846	73,822	5,168	23,557
1850	68,816	5,645	46,320	1845	62,506	5,780	33,127
1849	66,586	6,592	58,051	1844	63,898	5,010	23,104
1848	76,047	6,576	42,333	1843	54,335	4,674	27,563
1847	76,971	5,831	21,473	1842	49,726	5,165	24,524

Received from foreign ports, from January 1, to December 31.

	1851.			1850.		
	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bbls.	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bbls.
At New-York	72162	4519	4176	48484	2882	1060
Boston, from Cuba, etc	55147	4225	1262	59144	3821	1165
Portland, from Cuba, etc	56800	4192	1118	35788	1660	771
Providence, from Cuba, etc.	4715	367	124	5550	206	90
New-Haven—P. Rico, etc.	9156	127	18	17330	322	241
B'tol & Warren, Cuba, etc.,	6325	79	141			
Newb'port, Gloucester, do.,	4511	165	68			
Other East. ports, Cuba, etc.,	1858	74	114			
Philadelphia—from Cuba	20570	1534	702	20048	1558	315
.. .. P. Rico,	2136	115	8	2033	63	12
Baltimore—Cuba, P. Rico	7638	2329	308	6815	527	294
New-Orleans—from Cuba	6248	—	16505	—	—	—
Other southern ports, Cuba,	10422	894	724	8620	710	544
Total	257688	18620	25268	203812	11749	4501

Receipts of foreign in United States.

	Hhds.	Tcs.	Bbls.
Total receipts, from January 1, to December 31, 1851	257,688	18,620	25,268
Add stock at all the ports, January 1, 1851	12,800	310	250
Total supply	270,488	18,930	25,518
Deduct exports in 1851	2,365	408	239
	268,123	18,522	25,279
Deduct stock, 1st Jannary, 1852	11,200	327	252
Total consumption of foreign in 1851	256,923	18,195	25,027

—Or, about	33,238,278	gallons.
Add crop of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, etc., of 1850–'51, (the most of which came to market in 1851, and assuming the stock of this description, 1st January of each year to be equal)	10,709,740	gallons.
Would make the whole consumption in 1851	43,948,018	gallons.
Consumption of foreign in 1850	24,806,949	gallons.
Add crop of Louisiana, Texas, Florida, etc., of 1849–'50	12,212,300	..
Would make the whole consumption in 1850	37,019,249	..
Whole excess in 1851	6,928,769	..
Excess of foreign in 1851	8,431,329	..

It will be seen by the above statement, that the increase in the consumption of foreign in the country, in 1851, is equal to about 34 per cent. over the consumption of 1850. It will be remembered, however, that the crop of Louisiana, Texas, etc., in 1850–'51, was 1,502,560 gallons short of the production of the previous season, which induced larger importations the past year, even New-Orleans having taken equal to 1,227,435 gallons of Cuba to supply the deficiency. The crop of Louisiana, etc., the present season, is estimated to be a full average one.—[*N. Y. Shipping List.*

5.—BANK CAPITAL OF THE SEVERAL STATES.

TABLE, SHOWING THE POPULATION IN THE YEAR 1850, THE NUMBER OF BANKS, BANK CAPITAL, BANK CIRCULATION, AND COIN, OF EACH OF THE STATES, DECEMBER, 1851.

NOTE.—In those states marked with an asterisk (*) the amounts are, in part, estimated, but it is believed that they approximate the respective amounts at this date.

In Illinois a free banking system has been submitted to the people, and, at a popular election this year, approved by them. In this state there will probably soon be established several banks of circulation, based upon state stocks.

In Florida, a law was passed last winter authorizing the establishment of a bank at Tallahassee; but we do not learn that it has been yet organized. In the states of Illinois and Arkansas, the circulation of the Kentucky, Missouri and Indiana banks, is generally used.

[From the Bankers' Magazine, Boston.]

State.	Population, 1850.	No. of Banks.	Bank Capital.	Bank Circulation.	Bank Coin.
Maine	583,000	38	$4,098,000	$3,200,000	$630,000
New-Hampshire	318,000	25	2,586,000	2,120.000	140,000
Vermont	314,000	31	2,685,000	3,377,000	180,000
Massachusetts	994,000	137	43,350,000	17,000,000	3,000,000
Rhode Island	148,000	69	12,338,502	3,000,000	350,000
Connecticut	371,000	47	13,175,675	6,640,000	800,000
New-York	3,090,000	218	58,497,345	27,200,000	7,000,000
New-Jersey	490,000	25	4,019,900	3,500,000	750,000
Pennsylvania	2,311,000	54	18,966,351	12,000,000	6,200,000
* Delaware	91,000	9	1,440,000	1,000,000	250,000
* Maryland	583,000	26	9,287,395	3,700,000	3,000,000
District of Columbia,	52,000	4	1,182,300	350,000	300,000
Virginia	1,421,000	39	10,214,600	11,600,000	3,650,000
North Carolina	869,000	22	4,305,000	4,600,000	2,000,000
* South Carolina	669,000	14	11,431,183	7,500,000	2,600,000
* Georgia	906,000	18	5,629,215	4,300,000	1,700,000
* Alabama	772,000	2	2,000,000	3,500,000	1,800,000
Indiana	989,000	14	2,082,151	3,680,000	1,300,000
* Iowa	192,000	1	200,000	100,000	50,000
Kentucky	932,000	26	10,180,000	7,450,000	3,300,000
Louisiana	500,000	5	12,267,120	3,500,000	4,300,000
Michigan	398,000	4	762,000	650,000	150,000
Missouri	682,000	6	1,208,751	2,400,000	1,500,000
Ohio	1,977,000	61	7,866,376	11,635,000	2,800,000
Tennessee	1,003,000	23	8,405,197	5,300,000	1,900,000
* Texas	187,000	1	300,000	400,000	200,000
* Wisconsin	304,000	1	225,000	250,000	100,000
Illinois	858,000	—	none.	none.	—
Florida	87,000	—	none.	none.	—
Arkansas	210,000	—	none.	none.	—
* Mississippi	593,000	1	100,000	100,000	50,000
California	200,000	—	—	—	—
Total	23,144,000	921	$248,803,961	$150,052,000	$50,000,000

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—FRUIT CULTURE FOR THE SOUTH.

We have so many inquiries from different parts of the South upon the different branches of fruit culture, that we deem we cannot answer all more effectually than to republish our treatise upon fruit culture at the South, submitted to the first Fair of the Russell and Muscogee Agricultural Society. Since our visit to the Macon Fair, we are more than ever convinced of the beautiful adaptation of our climate to the growth and full perfection of all the fruits described. Will some of our southern readers add to the list the culture of the orange, lemon, pine-apple, date, olive and guava, as adapted to portions of Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Louisiana and Texas? In the culture of these fruits we have no experience, and shall feel under obligations if some one having experience will come to our aid.—[*Soil of the South.*]

Apple.—All the fine varieties of this fruit have been produced from the wild apple; and to the monks of the middle ages are we indebted for the first great improvements in fruit culture. The cultivated apples in the United States were introduced from Europe by seeds and by cuttings, and although the wild crab grows in almost every state in the Union, no edible variety is indigenous. The great difficulty in cultivating the apple here, is in the fact, that almost all the trees originated in a colder climate, and a change of climate is almost certain to produce disease. It is immaterial whether a tree, cutting or bud, is brought from a cold climate, for the bud contains all the elements of the tree, its health, and its diseases. This, no doubt, is the reason why most of our apple orchards are so short-lived, ten to fifteen years being their average length of life. If we would cultivate the apple successfully, we must propagate it from seeds, and improve upon them, and when we once get a good variety, propagate from it, by root-grafting. Apple seeds should be planted in the fall, or if delayed until spring, warm water should be poured over the seeds until they sprout, which will be in about three days, and then the seed planted, will grow from three to six feet the first year, and produce fruit in three or four years from seed; out of a lot of seedlings, in all probability there will be some good fruit; these may be propagated by root-grafting, which is the most certain and speedy way of propagation in this climate. This may be done from the first of February to the first of April. Take seedling roots of one year's growth, cut them off about one inch lower than they came out of the ground; now split the remaining stem just enough to take in the graft. The grafts should be taken from fruit-bearing trees, and from wood of last year's growth; cut the grafts with two or three buds, and as many as possible with terminal buds; take a sharp knife, and cut the end of the graft in a wedge form, commencing at the lower bud; now insert it in the root, taking care to keep the two outside barks together; plant the root either in the nursery, or where the tree is to stand, leaving the terminal and one other bud above the ground; be careful in pressing the earth around the graft, that it is not moved from the union of its bark with the bark of the root. In any good soil, the graft will grow from four to six feet the first year, and will produce fruit the second or third year. The graft has now become a tree, and to be made productive, must be cultivated, nursed and tended. It will grow on almost any rich soil, and it is useless to cultivate the apple unless the soil is rich. Where the soil is not naturally rich, the roots should annually receive a top dressing of some good vegetable matter, with a little lime or ashes. The tree should be pruned, so as to throw out its branches low, to shade the trunk from the intense heat of our summer's sun, which frequently blisters the bark, causing disease and death. The ground of the orchard should be regularly cultivated, taking care not to injure the roots. One of the best methods ever adopted in this climate, is to shade the whole grounds of the orchard with straw—wheat, oat, or pine straw. This preserves an even temperature, keeps the ground cool and moist, and gives the tree an astonishing vigor and beauty. There are four insects which are great enemies to the apple in this section—the borer, the moth, the bark louse, and the black worm, which infest the roots. The best remedy for the borer and the bark louse, is to rub the trunk and limbs of the tree with soft country soap; this not only destroys the insects, but invigorates the tree, and also effectually prevents rabbits from barking them; for the black worm around the base of the tree, ashes or lime may be used with advantage, and are a good preventive—but where the worm has already begun his ravages, take a sharp knife and pick him out, filling up all the worm holes and wounds with soft soap. The moth that produces the apple worm may be destroyed by picking up all the fruit that falls, and feeding it to hogs, or by permitting hogs to run in the orchard.

If the people of the South will discard northern raised apple trees, and raise their own seedlings, we may have the apple in as great perfection here as any where else; for wherever the wild crab grows, there may the improved varieties be grown also. It is true, the apple tree will not be as long lived here as at the North, but they come into bearing so much sooner. It is stated of the celebrated green Gage plum, that out of several bushels of seed planted, and raised to bearing, the green Gage was the only one out of the whole lot worth cultivating: and if we can, by planting bushels of apple seeds, produce one that shall hold rank as a fruit with the green Gage, it would be the greatest acquisition to fruit culture that has ever beamed upon the South; and it can be done—all it wants is patience and perseverance. The greatest real difficulty that we have to contend with, is the speedy decay of the fruit, after it has matured. Whenever we find a remedy for this, the South will have nothing to fear in the culture of the apple.

THE PEAR.—The pear is a native of Europe and Asia, and was first introduced into this country by French settlers. There is no fruit that has been more improved by the horticulturist's skill than the pear. In its native state, it is even more unpalatable than the crab, and is termed choke pear. It is now made melting, sugary, and buttery. Van Mons, the celebrated Belgium pomologist, has produced eighty thousand new seedling pears, many of them of exquisite flavor, and all said to be worthy of cultivation. The pear tree is not as subject to disease in this climate as the apple, nor is the fruit as subject to the attacks of insects. The tree is somewhat longer in coming into bearing, but if it be grafted from fruit-bearing trees, on pear, apple, or quince roots, as directed for the apple, it will bear in four or five years after grafting. It is much longer lived than the apple, and there can be no doubt but many of the southern states are better adapted to pear culture than the northern. Here we never have that scourge of northern pear trees, the frozen sap blight, nor has the fire blight made its appearance here. Take it altogether, it is the hardiest fruit cultivated at the South, and the wonder is, why it is not more extensively cultivated. The pear will grow in any soil that will produce corn, but it most delights in a light, rich loam, impregnated with iron; for this reason, blacksmiths' cinders have been found valuable to apply around pear trees. They may be propagated by seeds where new varieties are wanted, and grafts where a new and valuable kind is to be propagated. It will take some more patience to rear seedlings than from the apple, as the pear seldom bears from seed under ten to fifteen years, and frequently not under twenty; but as the tree has not the principles of decay stamped upon it that the apple has, grafts may be brought from any country where the pear has been brought to the highest state of perfection, and those who choose to experiment may try the seed. The southern states are as well adapted to the pear as Belgium. I saw Dr. Camak, of Athens, exhibiting forty-five varieties of pears at the Fair, at Atlanta, all the produce of his own orchard, and most of them of superior quality. One great advantage the pear has over all other fruits raised here, is its long-keeping quality, which should commend it to southern cultivators; there are many varieties that may be kept through the whole winter, ripening entirely in the house, after picking, which will place the pear first on the list of southern cultivated fruits. The pear needs little or no pruning, and to render it dwarf in its habits, graft it on quince stocks; this is particularly well adapted to garden culture, and brings them into bearing sooner than standard trees.

THE PEACH—The peach is a native of Asia, and was first introduced into Europe by the Romans, and into this country by the early settlers. It is easily propagated, either by seeds, cuttings, or graftings. Peaches come into bearing in this climate, from the seed, in two and three years; but as there is no certainty of producing the same variety from seed, as the parent tree, cuttings or grafting must be resorted to. In grafting the peach, graft in roots of peach, plum, or apricot, one year old, as directed for the apple; this method of grafting is easier than budding, and altogether superior; for, as the graft is inserted below the surface of the ground, the whole tree is of the grafted variety; they will grow from six to eight feet the first season, and will bear fruit the second; the grafting should be done just as the buds begin to swell; pinch off all the blossom buds, and leave the terminal and one side bud above the surface of the ground. A rich, sandy loam, suits the peach best, and imparts the finest flavor to the fruit. The great enemy to the peach in this country, is the peach worm; this is a worm much resembling a flat head, which preys upon the tree near the roots, frequently eating entirely round the trunk, causing death to the tree; they may easily be detected by the black gummy substance exuding around the base of the tree. There are many remedies and preventives recommended; lime and ashes are good preventives; scrape away the earth around the base of the tree, and fill in with some good air-slaked lime, or good fresh ashes; renew this every spring; but where the worm has got already a good hold, I have never found anything so effectual as boiling water, turned from the spout of a tea-kettle; be careful and not apply too much water at a time, as it might kill the tree; but a moderate quantity not only kills all the eggs and worms, but seems to invigorate the tree. The worm is produced by a fly, which deposits eggs in the bark around the base, and they hatch out a white flat worm and commence their work of destruction immediately. Another pest to peach culture, is the worm in the fruit, from the wooly down on the young peach. The fruit is not as subject to the attacks of insects as the plum, and if hogs are allowed to run in the peach orchard, they effectually keep down the insect, as they eat all the falling fruit, destroying the insect with it. A peach crop, to come to its highest perfection, should be tilled with as much assiduity as corn or cotton. The great fault with southern peach culturists is, they are not satisfied with the yield of peaches, but they must annually crop the peach orchard, and it must yield corn or cotton, as well as peaches. A peach orchard, planted twenty feet each way, will require every inch of soil in the intervening spaces for the roots, to perfect the trunk, foliage, flowers, and fruit; and every crop taken from a peach orchard, is just so much taken from the productiveness of the trees. This may be objected to by some, who have tried some crops amongst their trees with apparent good results; but in cultivating the crops, the trees got more culture than usual, and showed an increased production over the season when they were in the turf. If the trees bore better by cultivating a crop amongst them, how much better would they been cultivated without the crop! It is a well established fact, that all grain crops are positively injurious to fruit trees. The proper time for pruning in this climate is July; the wound then heals quickly, and as peaches are only made on new wood, it is best to shorten in the branches, to induce the limbs to make new wood, which will give plenty of fruit for next season. A serious difficulty the peach has to contend with here, is the late spring frosts. The warm days of winter swell the bud, and the first genial day of spring it bursts forth in its tenderness and beauty, but to be blackened and blighted by a lingering frost. For this reason, peaches should never be planted on low, wet lands, or in the vicinity of streams of water, as they are much more liable to be killed by frosts than when planted on high and dry lands. As to varieties, there are seedling peaches raised on many of our plantations that will compare favorably with any of the grafts of France; and whoever may wish to start a peach orchard, need not go out of Georgia for varieties. Peach seed should be planted immediately after eating the fruit. It is frequently observed that self-planted peaches make the most vigorous trees, and the reason is, they had a better start.

[To be continued.]

2.—AGRICULTURAL CHEMISTRY IN THE SOUTH.

Nothing could be made more important to the South than the application of the light which chemistry adds to agriculture; and yet how little attention is paid to this matter among us. We see that a proposal has been made in Mississippi for the appointment of a state chemist, whose duties are intended to cover the whole field. We trust that the movement will be successful, and that it will be imitated throughout all the South.

"The Committee on Agriculture of the Senate of that state, have reported a bill creating the office of *Agricultural Chemist*—an officer whose indicated duties would be as various as they would certainly prove utilitarian and useful.

"The committee's bill provides for the division of the state into three agricultural districts—if we may so term them—which districts shall be the same as the supreme judicial districts, into which the state is now divided. In each of these districts, the Agricultural Chemist is required to spend one-third of the year, and one month in each county of the districts, in the order of their enumeration, if deemed necessary. He is required to analyze one specimen of all varieties of soil in the county where he may be, and one specimen of marl, or other mineral deposit. He is further required to give one public lecture in each police district of the county, and subsequently a course of public lectures in each county town, and to permit the Clerk of the Board of Police to transcribe a copy of the same for deposit in his office, and for publication, if deemed expedient by the Board. It is also made his duty to make an annual report to the legislature, if in session, and if not, to the governor, who shall cause the publication of the same."

Whilst on this subject we will say, that Professor J. Laurence Smith, of the University of Louisiana, who was for several years geologist and mining engineer for the Sultan of Turkey, proposes to undertake all chemical analyses of minerals, soils, mineral waters, commercial articles, in his laboratory, connected with the University. Professor Smith has established a scientific reputation as well in Europe as in our own country.

We also add, that Mr. Judd, who is endorsed by the distinguished Professor Norton, of Yale College, proposes to analyze earths and products, and makes an appeal to the planters, which we copy, in the hope it will be answered.

YALE ANALYTICAL LABORATORY,
New-Haven, Jan. 7th, 1852.

Mr. Editor,—During the last summer I made some experiments upon the ash of a stalk of a cotton plant, which I procured from Louisiana. The results of a qualitative and quantitative determination of this ash, were read by Prof. Norton, at the Albany meeting of the American Scientific Association, and will be published in the forthcoming volume of Transactions.

I should like to make a series of analyses of the ashes from the different parts of this important plant, especially the stalk, cotton, and seed of different varieties, from various localities. and also a general examination of some soils, upon which the different varieties are best produced. The extensive cultivation of so important a staple product, demands a much more careful and extended examination of its chemical relation to the soil, than has yet been even attempted.

If I can obtain suitable and authentic samples, from the analysis of which general results may be arrived at, I will cheerfully devote the time from now till next August, to such analysis.

I write to inquire whether there are not among some of your correspondents, gentlemen who, for the sake of obtaining an examination of their own products and soils, or those in their vicinity, would be at the expense of procuring and forwarding suitable specimens?

To accomplish much before the middle of August, it would be necessary to begin very soon.

If certain that a sufficient number of specimens could be procured to accomplish the result aimed at, I would begin upon the first that could be obtained, and take up the others as they came forward.

Yours, respectfully,

ORANGE JUDD.

DEPARTMENT OF MANUFACTURES AND MINING.

1.—CONSUMPTION OF COTTON IN MANUFACTURES.

Messrs. Du Fay & Co., of Manchester, have published the following interesting table, giving a comparative estimate of the quantities of raw cotton consumed in the principal manufacturing countries, in millions of weight, from 1836 to 1851. The figures for the United States are much too low.

	1836.	1840.	1845.	1849.	1851.
Great Britain, (millions of lbs.)	350	473	597	627	648
Russia, Germany, Holland, and Belgium.	57	72	96	160	118
France, (including adjacent countries)	118	157	158	186	149
Spain	—	—	—	—	34
Mediterranean	—	—	—	—	12
Countries bordering on the Adriatic	28	28	38	47	45
United States of North America	86	111	158	205	158
Sundries	—	—	—	—	11
Total	639	841	1047	1225	1175

2.—THE DEVELOPMENT OF SOUTHERN RESOURCES THE BEST GUARANTY FOR THE PROTECTION OF SOUTHERN RIGHTS.

By W. SYKES, of Tennessee.

What measures should be adopted by the southern states for the protection of their rights, is a question of great interest at this time. We are well satisfied that the development of southern resources is the best guarantee for the protection of southern rights. Before proceeding to show what measures the South should at this time adopt, we will notice one source of apprehension to many southern men. They think that in the course of a few years several additional free states will be admitted into the Union; that the equilibrium between the free and slave states will be forever destroyed; and that the free states, having an overwhelming majority in both branches of Congress and in the electoral college, as well as of the popular vote, will either attempt to change the Constitution, or will so construe it as materially to affect the rights of the South. They think, in that event, the South will be unable successfully to resist, since she will be growing weaker every day, and therefore they are in favor of seceding from the Union *now*, and of establishing a Southern Confederacy, where their rights will be secure and their property unmolested. However much we may differ from these men, we cannot deny their sincerity, and we are compelled to admit, that the course pursued by a certain portion of the northern people justifies their suspicions. For our own part, we think their apprehensions are not well grounded, at least we hope they are not. That the North will have a majority in both branches of Congress and in the electoral college, as well as of the popular vote, we do not deny. This is unavoidable; but when this takes place, it does not follow that they will attempt any serious interference with our rights. It is certain they will not, if the SOUTH PRESENTS UNITED RESISTANCE. So far from the South becoming weaker every day, it will, by the development of its resources, increase in strength, and become more and more necessary to the North. The North is dependent upon the South in a commercial point of view, and must so continue whilst the South grows cotton, sugar, rice, tobacco, and other productions, which never can be grown in the North. This would be the case if there were thirty instead of sixteen free states, and would always prevent the North from any serious interference with the rights of the South if the South would be united, and would satisfy the North that any such interference would inevitably result in the secession of all the slave holding states. There need not, therefore, be any apprehension on account of the increase in the number of free states. The southern states, though weaker in numbers than the northern, will, by the aid of their great staples, which are in fact the life-blood of northern manufactures and northern commerce, be able to defend themselves and to resist any encroachments upon southern rights.

Having disposed of this matter, we now propose to consider what measures should be adopted by the South at this time, not as preparatory steps to disunion, but as a means of self-defence. We should NOW adopt the policy of improving our own section, and of availing ourselves of our natural advantages, which are so great. Hitherto we have been dependent upon other sections for most of the necessaries, comforts, and luxuries of life. We have been an agricultural people exclusively, and, as a matter of course, others have grown rich by manufacturing our raw material, and by having control of that commerce which legitimately belonged to us. We do not deny that the operations of the general government have thrown the greatest portion of the public burdens upon the South, whilst other sections have derived the greatest benefits.

The protective tariff and internal improvement systems have borne heavily upon the rights and interests of the South, whilst the North has been greatly benefited by them. But in this respect a decided change for the better has taken place. The tariff and internal improvement systems will never again, we sincerely hope, and believe, be the established policy of the government. The South will never again be compelled to pay tribute to the North in the way of protective duties, nor will the general government build up a system of internal improvements at the expense of the South for the benefit of the North. In these particulars the condition of the South is better than it has been in a number of years. Free trade, the favorite doctrine of the South, is destined hereafter to be the established policy of the government. Under the present tariff, manufactures have increased in all sections of the Union, but especially in the South.

The quantity of cotton consumed in the United States was, for the year ending 30th September:

	Bales.	Value.
1846	470,597	$15,764,999
1850	595,269	26,484,470
Increase	124,672	10,719,471

This shows an increase of one hundred and twenty-four thousand six hundred and seventy-two bales of cotton consumed in the United States in 1850, over the amount in 1846, the last year the tariff of 1842 was in operation. Again: the value of cotton goods exported from the United States in 1846, was $3,545,481, and in 1850, it was $4,734,424. These facts show that the manufacturing interests, particularly in the South, have not been injured by the present tariff. It has been estimated by the able commercial correspondent of the Washington Union, that coarse cotton goods can be manufactured much cheaper in the South than at the North. This is owing to the fact, that the South has the raw material in her midst, and has also an abundance of cheap provisions, together with the finest water power in the Union, and immense quantities of coal and timber, if steam power should be considered preferable. This same writer estimates that "a mill at the South, turning out 100,000 yards per week, will net $800 profit, when the New-Englander, if he runs, will lose $600."

This accounts for the increase of factories in the South, whilst some at the North, it is said, have been compelled to stop operations on account of the high prices of cotton last winter.

No country can compete successfully with the southern states in the manufacture of coarse cottons. Our natural advantages afford us ample protection, and we can, if we will use the proper energy, have not only a monopoly of cotton growing, but also of cotton manufacturing. To do this, we need no government aid, no tariff for protection. This is the first step we should take for the promotion of our interests. To estimate the importance of the cotton growing interest of the southern states, it is only necessary to state, that in the year 1849 there were, in Great Britain, Europe, and the United States, 3,323,365 bales of cotton consumed, and 873,634 operatives employed, and 671 millions of dollars invested in the manufacture of cotton. Of this large consumption about 2,800,000 bales are from the southern states of this Union. The value of cotton exported from the United States the year ending 30th June, 1850, was $71,984,616, The fabrics manufactured out of this cotton furnish clothing to millions of human beings; and a failure of the cotton crop of the United States would, therefore, be one of the greatest calamities that could befall mankind. Why is it, then, with this great staple at our very doors, we cannot manufacture at least a considerable portion of it ourselves, and thereby reap some of the profits which are made by other countries out of our productions? This may be done without resorting to disunion, or to a tax upon articles manufactured at the North, the constitutionality of which measure is, to say the least of it, extremely questionable. Let our state legislature manifest becoming liberality towards our works of improvement, and they will thus do more to aid the South than can be done by angry discussion and high sounding resolutions.

The establishment of factories, the building of rail-roads, and the development of our mineral resources, will do more to make the South truly independent and to secure her rights, than all the southern congresses which can ever assemble. She needs a change in her policy more than she does a change of the Constitution, to secure additional guarantees to southern rights. We have not only been dependent upon the North for our manufactures, but also in a great degree for literary instruction. A considerable portion of the support of northern schools has been from the South. This should no longer be the case. We should build up literary institutions in the South fully equal, if not superior, to those of the North, and we should educate our sons and daughters at home. We should also encourage our own mechanics, instead of buying every thing from other countries. This will enable them to sell at reduced prices, and at the same time to furnish better articles. Can any sensible reason be assigned why the South cannot furnish facilities for a high order of scholarship as well as the North, and why we may not equal them in every branch of industry?

There is none; and the sooner public attention is directed to this subject the better will it be for the southern states. No state in the Union possesses more of the elements of wealth than our own. We have iron ore equal to that of Pennsylvania, water power not surpassed by that of Massachusetts, and coal equal to that found in any state of the Union. It is true, we need works of internal improvement to enable us to carry our manufactures to market, and to aid in the development of our resources; but these can, and we trust will be made at an early day. The feeling in favor of a wise system of internal improvements is continually increasing among the people. It is growing too strong to be resisted much longer, and must become the settled policy of the state. South Carolina, Georgia, and Virginia, have all tried the experiment, and the good effects are seen in the enhanced value of their lands, the growing prosperity of their towns, the increase of their population, and the activity in all branches of industry. The interest which has been and is now manifested in the East Tennessee Rail-roads, in the Nashville and Louisville, in the Nashville and New-Orleans, in the Memphis and Charleston, in the Nashville and Mississippi River Rail-roads, and also in the extension of the Mobile and Ohio Rail-road through West Tennessee, and from its terminus on the Tennessee River through Columbia to Nashville, indicates that the people of Tennessee are becoming aroused to the importance of works of internal improvement. We shall not now attempt to show ths necessity of these improvements, as that subject has already been sufficiently discussed; suffice it to say, that when these improvements are made, Tennessee will be one of the first states in the Union. It is to be hoped that our legislature will be governed by a liberal spirit in regard to works of internal improvement, having at the same time a due regard to the interests and security of the state. In this way true devotion can be manifested to southern rights.

3.—GOLD MINES IN VIRGINIA.

Within the past three years several rich mines have been opened and worked successfully in different sections of the state.

The attention of the world has been awakened to the importance of this branch of mining. Since the discovery of the mineral wealth of California, thousands have flocked to that distant country, incurring great risks and deprivations, in the hope of realizing their fortunes. A few have turned their attention to the same business nearer home, where success has generally attended their labors, while many of the sanguine wanderers who ventured their all are returning, after a year's absence, broken in health and spirits, no richer than when they left.

We believe Commodore Stockton was one of the first who introduced into Virginia effective machinery for reducing on a large scale, the quartz rock, and *demonstrating* that a profitable business could be done in this branch of mining.

Some three years since he purchased the tract of land in Fluvanna county, about sixty miles distant from this city, upon which was a rich and extensive gold vein, where he erected a large mill and other works. The glowing accounts received from California of the richness and extent of the *auriferous* quartz of that country, induced Commodore Stockton to suspend for a time his mining operations in this state, and to send his experienced workmen, with complete outfit, machinery, &c., to test the newly-discovered gold veins in California.

We are informed by a friend who conversed a short time since with one of the company, that they were not successful, the results not meeting expectations; their operations were discontinued in that country, the workmen returned to this state, and Commodore Stockton has resumed his mining operations in Fluvanna county on a larger scale than heretofore, having introduced improved machinery, and has good prospects of doing a profitable and permanent business.

There are several other gold mines in operation in this state, and are said to be doing well.

We have taken some pains to gain information on this subject, believing, as we do, that as the country becomes settled, and improved machinery introduced, *this branch of mining* in our state at no very distant day will produce an annual amount of the precious metal that will go far towards furnishing us with a *solid basis* for our *currency*.

The mines of William M. Moseley & Co., and the Garnett Mining Company in Buckingham county, are perhaps paying larger dividends to the stockholders on their outlay than any other mines in this state.

We have seen specimens of the quartz from this vein unequalled in richness by any auriferous quartz ever shown us. We were recently shown a large rock weighing 108 pounds, with the gold visible all through it, with many other specimens which were taken from the Garnett vein at ninety feet from the surface, at which depth the vein is from sixteen to twenty feet wide, all carrying gold.

There are several shafts sunk upon the vein, and galleries opened some six hundred feet in length, where the mills of these two companies are situated near together and on the same vein.

Six miles from these mines are two other mills, worked by Mr. Eldridge and Mr. Wiseman, which are said to be doing very well.—*Richmond Whig.*

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

THE LATE SOUTH-WESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION AT NEW-ORLEANS.

CONDITION AND PROSPECTS OF NEW-ORLEANS, AND WHAT SHE MUST DO FOR RAIL-ROADS, &C.

SPEECH OF JAMES ROBB, ESQ., OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Convention:

The resolutions presented, it will be seen, embrace three modes of raising the means of constructing railroads—to wit: First, by memorializing Congress for donations of public lands; secondly, by voluntary subscriptions; and third, by taxation. The resolutions are written by Mr. Benjamin, and I trust will meet the unanimous approval of the Convention, as they have that of the Committee, whose organ I have the honor to be.

In presenting these resolutions, I desire to submit some observations to the Convention, for which I pray their kind indulgence. I am sure the Convention will not doubt my sincerity, when I declare to you my great distrust and diffidence in appearing before you in my present attitude—a diffidence arising from the habitudes of my life, which have given me no opportunities of cultivating a talent for public speaking, even if I possessed it. But there are occasions when all of us may—nay, ought to throw aside embarrassments of this nature, in order to contribute our mite to the public safety and advancement. We owe it to our country—to the community which supports and nourishes us, to make that sacrifice. No one is more sensible of this obligation than I am. Fourteen years ago I came here, a young man, without means or friends. Fortune has dealt kindly by me. I owe to this city and state the prosperity which I enjoy, and I should be recreant of every noble feeling of humanity if I did not seek to repay the favor and nourishment I have received, by a devotion of my capacity and energies to the advancement of the interests and welfare of our city and state. My interests, besides, are identified with those of this community; my attachments, sympathies—all my feelings cling to this great South-west, for whose honor and advancement this intelligent assembly has convened.

Prompted by these motives, I come forward, in my humble sphere, to urge upon you a vigorous, liberal and enlarged action on the great subject of internal improvements in the South-west. I shall speak to you with the candor of a citizen, and with the directness of a banking-house. I shall speak to you of what I regard as our duties, with manly freedom and frankness.

What is the object of this Convention? We meet, gentlemen, not to carry out any local end or enterprise, but collect the opinions of a large assembly of the intelligent citizens of a number of states, which, though separated by boundary lines and by distance, have great common interests. These opinions will go forth to the people, to enlighten, guide and direct them into the true path of their honor and interest;—they will go forth, not as the opinions of individuals, but as a combined expression of the views of a body, the superior of which, in point of patriotism and intelligence, has never been assembled in this country.

Speaking in behalf of the city which I have the honor, in part, to represent on this floor, I desire to direct the attention of the Convention to some remarks, which have already been referred to by my senatorial colleague, Mr. Benjamin, relative to the position and circumstances of New-Orleans. Gentlemen came here from other states, with the idea that New-Orleans was in desperate plight, and needed their assistance to rescue her declining fortunes. Such kindly proffers are gratefully appreciated, but Louisiana and New-Orleans have not yet sunk quite so low as that. They need no aid beyond their own limits. They would take care of themselves. They were going to build their own works, with their own labor and capital. Why, it is asked, has Louisiana failed in the rail-road undertakings heretofore? Why have Arkansas, Alabama, Mississippi, also failed? I answer, for the same reason that Louisiana has failed. We have all failed in our duty—failed in energy, enterprise, and an enlightened devotion to the interests of our highly-favored region of the Union. Let not all the blame, then, rest upon Louisiana. She has been, in a great measure, influenced by the state of affairs in New-Orleans; and here we have had difficulties in the way of liberal public enterprises, of which gentlemen from the country cannot be fully aware. At the risk of offending some prejudice, I shall speak of some of these difficulties in a spirit of manly candor due to the subject and the occasion.

I had, recently, the honor of appearing before the Legislature of the gallant State of Tennessee, where I was received with a kindness for which I shall ever be deeply grateful. I went there to tell them, in all humility, the true state of our affairs—to explain to them the difficulties which embarrassed our actions, for which our sister states should make all due allowances. I told them that when Louisiana became a portion of our Union, a large class—embracing a majority of her population—were of a different nationality, and spoke a different language from that of the population of the other states; but among this ancient population there prevailed as ardent a patriotism and devotion to the institutions of our common country, as ever animated the bosoms of any people. These nationalities and differences of language and customs were, however, seized upon by designing men, to excite ill-feelings and prejudices among our population, which were as fruitful of mischief as they were absurd in their character, and unfounded in reason or fact. From this state of feeling sprung that unfortunate measure, which I regard as one of the chief, if not the sole cause, of some of the embarrassments that have obstructed the progress of our city. I refer to the division of this city of 130,000 people into four separate municipal corporations, (for I include Lafayette.) This division may have been called for 1836, owing to the oppressive exercise of power by an excited majority, but the causes for it no longer exist now. No man who has at heart the interests of the city, can advocate its continuance. What has been the operation of this miserable system of municipal government? Let us look at some of its fruits. In 1845, according to the report of the Finance Committee, the debt of the Second Municipality was $2,099,000; to-day it is $2,700,000. From the 1st of January, 1845, to the 1st of January, 1852—a period of seven years—the expenses of the Second Municipality had reached the enormous sum of over $6,000,000, or near an annual outlay of $900,000, or an average of $30 to each inhabitant, of all ages, colors and conditions. This incredible expenditure had been met by excessive levies of taxes on the property, capital and commerce of the municipality, with the income from loans, that had swelled its debts nearly $100,000 per annum. Where has this enormous sum gone?—not to pay debts, they have increased; not to pay the interest on our debts, for that is not now paid; not to build improvements, for we have none. Where are the monuments that attest the application of this expenditure? We have none—nay, absolutely nothing. It has gone without leaving any memorial, but the inheritance of a profligate system of government, that is sinking the municipality every year deeper and deeper in debt and embarrassment—an inheritance that has changed hope into despair, and destroyed confidence at home and abroad. What applies to the Second Municipality, applies to all the others. Gentlemen of the country will, no doubt, be startled at these figures, and at the recital of such oppressions. Such would not be borne in any European city for an hour or a day.

The sympathies of our people have been appealed to in behalf of the people of Cuba, yet in that island the taxation does not much exceed $12 to each inhabitant, and they enjoy a prosperity that does not exist here; whilst in the Second Municipality, the average taxation, in 1850, actually reached $30 for each inhabitant. Astounding as all this seems, we have persons among us, influenced by old prejudices —persons who possess intelligence and property, who cling to our present divided system of government, which is destroying our credit, our property, and demoralizing our character. I make these admissions with humility, that you of the country may rightly understand our embarrassments.

We are without unity in our government—its very elements are destructive to sound and healthy public opinion, and fatal to public enterprise and public credit. What can be expected from four miserable governments in aiding great undertakings—in exalting the character of our people, that have only achieved the results I have clearly and truly stated? What would New-York be, divided and governed by four such governments? Would she do any better than we do? Would she have achieved the distinctions in improvements and commercial power, that challenge admiration from all parts of the civilized world? In this state of division New-Orleans cannot build a mile of rail-road; and for all the purposes of internal improvement, so far as the co-operation of the municipalities can be obtained, they might as well be twenty miles distant from each other. When we have gone before the Legislature to ask its aid, the country members say, gentlemen of the city, agree among yourselves, and we will consent to any law you may request. But such agreement has never been had; no union has ever existed, each division carried into the councils of the state its local animosities, prejudices and differences, regardless of the common good of the whole city.

Our country friends must stand by us and aid us to rid ourselves of this anomalous and tyrannical system, which is certainly at war with our best interests, and which undermines the credit and demoralizes the character of our city. We are, and have been, under the domination of office-holders—whose number is legion—whose influence is in active opposition to changes that curtail their power—whose love of spoil and dominion is above all considerations of the public good. We must tread down this power under our feet. We must declare our independence of all official dictation. We must abolish the whole system of divided government; and when we assemble again we will, I hope, present to you a consolidated and united city,—consolidated in interests, in feeling, in policy, in enterprise, and what is more, paying our honest debts, and redeemed in credit at home and abroad.

If we fail in doing all this, this Convention will fail in its objects—its labors will be futile and profitless. But we cannot and will not fail. I am sanguine of success, and that we shall carry out all the great schemes that have occupied your attention. Every citizen who has anything at stake, feels that our system of government is one of mischief—that its tendencies are to depreciate the value of his enterprise. The citizen without property, feels his chances of acquiring any are daily decreased—the citizen possessed of property, feels that his possessions are daily diminishing.

Such a condition of affairs takes away hope, and our people are full of doubts. Every man knows that with excessive and increasing taxation, and a perishing public credit, we cannot build improvements: but all know that the encouragements flowing from a good, efficient and economical government, will bring credit, aid and ability to construct all the public improvements that interest us, in the valley of the Mississippi; that New-Orleans will then be carried forward to that noble and magnificent position in which nature placed her, as the mart of a vast and unequaled empire. When we have achieved the overthrow of our government, we shall stand shoulder to shoulder with you in all your great works. When New-Orleans has a good government, and high credit, what signifies then her debt? Large as we now consider it, under a united government, it would be a mere trifle. Let it once be known that New-Orleans is paying her debts, that she is one city, and this knowledge will be hastily transmitted through the medium of her commercial agencies to every capital in Europe. It is there that capital will be found in abundance, as it was twenty years ago, when the Bonds of the state, issued to the Union Bank, were the first on the list of American securities in London. It was the high character of our state abroad, and the knowledge of unrivaled resources, that then gave us credit. Our resources are not lessened, but greatly enlarged; and if we but regain the character we enjoyed by the practice of honesty, good faith and good government, millions of capital will be as certain to flow in upon us, as yon great stream moves majestically towards the gulf into which it passes its waters.

Let gentlemen who ask our aid for other improvements than those projected from our city, note my facts and consider them fairly, and not expect us to contribute millions to all the improvements of the Southwest. When we have commenced to build roads from our own limits, we must, with reference to our ability, first engage in the construction of those works imperiously demanded by the wants of our people, those works that will be most expedient, and will be most certain to recommend themselves to our people at large. These works completed, we will soon be in circumstances to render material aid to all works that promise usefulness. The favorable results of a few undertakings will awaken hopes and interests that are now timid and sensitive, and stimulate us to larger views, and aid to other projects contemplated in the Southwest.

The two great works which must for the present absorb our means and enterprise, are the great trunk line which is to complete the grand line of rail-road communication with the Atlantic cities and the Ohio valley, and the great Western line, which is to penetrate the vast country stretching for so great a distance west of the Mississippi. Our position is similar to that of New-York in 1809, when the necessity of developing the great western part of the state began to impress itself on the minds of the people. The splendid results you all know. New-Orleans has greater resources than New-York ever had, in the vast and fertile country west of the Mississippi. There lies her empire and power. Thence will pour into her lap wealth, which no imagination can grasp, and no figures compute.

These are the projects which at present engage our attention. To consummate them, is our present object and determination. In what manner, and by what means, is the question which occupied the serious consideration of the committee of ways and means. I propose to speak now to one of the propositions of the committee,—that of taxation of real estate, as a means of building rail-roads. I know that a proposition to tax in Louisiana, more than in any other part of the country, excites the deepest concern and opposition. We have good reasons for such sensibility. In New-Orleans the bare mention of a new tax is enough to alarm the boldest; but, gentlemen, I am in favor of the tax. The remedy is perfect terror to some of our people. I am a believer—and I am a fellow-sufferer on a large scale, but I have confidence and prefer the tax, to being without rail-roads, commerce and credit.—I am a believer in the sacred and inalienable rights of property, that the practical character of every government is the result of a state of property, and security of life; and that any government that fails in maintaining this great principle is not worth preserving. But let us examine the matter dispassionately, and see if the tax proposed is not a just and judicious one. What is the condition of property in Louisiana? In the rural parishes of the state we have lands, slaves, movables, machinery, and stock; in the city, landed property, means, houses and lots.

I advocate a uniform tax between the country and the city, because its operation is equal—because the lands of the country enjoy, perpetually, a benefit by the construction of rail-road improvements. I consider such a taxation as one of justice and policy in a country where the pursuits of the inhabitants are chiefly, or almost exclusively, rural; that it is neither wisdom nor policy for such a country to impose taxation on personal property, where its importance is so insignificant; that it is unwise to tax the capital that imports from other countries—imports which we ourselves consume, and which, if taxed, is indirectly returned to the tax-payer, by the increased price demanded from, and paid by the consumer. Besides, the merchant who imports does not always make a profit on his imports; while the vigilant landlord is generally certain of his rent. The pursuits of trade are those of fluctuation and uncertainty. Look at this question in another point of view, and let me inquire who employ the houses and stores of a city? The landlord can only live in one house, but he needs tenants for his remaining property; and in a city so exclusively commercial as New-Orleans, who compose that tenantry? Merchants, and the agents of commerce. Is it not the gain and interest of the property-holder to encourage the increase of this class of population? And what agency so efficient to do this as building rail-roads? If the building of rail-roads permanently increases the value of houses, by increasing the demand for them, is it the interest or is it the policy of the landlord to oppose a system so manifestly intended for his benefit? But the clear and lucid explanations of my friend, Mr. Benjamin, show that the mode of raising means to build rail-roads by taxation, is the least objectionable of all modes of taxation; and that, practically speaking, it is no taxation at all where the improvements made by such means are feasible and profitable. An agricultural people are at no time, or in any country, much disposed to be liberal subscribers to stock companies; as a class, they regard with timidity and doubt all undertakings that do not seem to possess the certain security of landed possessions; and while our planters would see inducements to borrow money to enlarge and extend their estates, they would never, as individuals, borrow money to become stockholders in a bank or a rail-road. It is in cities, where the spirit of adventure, stimulated by examples of successful enterprise, comes forward to embark in undertakings, and where the aggregations of capital are ready to be advanced when inducements are offered, that undertakings receive the most favor. It is only necessary to recur to my explanation of the position of New-Orleans credit, to ascertain that this advantage, common to other cities, is now an insignificant one with us, and that the recommendation we make in favor of taxation, is suggested by reasons of policy, as well as by reasons of necessity.

Taxation, for the purposes of internal improvement, has been sanctioned by the usages of New-York, Pennsylvania and Ohio. All these states borrowed largely to build canals and rail-roads, and taxed the whole people to pay the interest on their loans. In Ohio, the opposition to the tax was very great; opposition was manifested in every way. The lives of the officers of the state, charged with the collection of the tax, were seriously threatened. But before the canal was completed, the people of the interior of Ohio received little or nothing for the products of their farms, and the price paid for wheat was twenty-five cents per bushel. When the canals were opened, wheat rose in price to eighty cents and one dollar per bushel; their lands four and five hundred per cent.; and any one who would have had the temerity to condemn the canal, would have been almost in as much danger as the officers who collected the tax to pay the interest on the loans that had furnished the means of their construction.

I shall not dwell longer on this point. The question is at once so suggestive, that I do not think any gentleman present needs further examples to overcome his objections, if he have any; and, were I to pursue the question further, I would point you to the examples of many of our sister states and cities of the Southwest, where taxation to build rail-roads has been adopted almost without opposition.

Mr. President: I now pass to another subject of great interest to New-Orleans and as one intimately connected with the progress and completion of rail-roads in the valley of the Mississippi. One of the chief drawbacks to New-Orleans is the absence of an import trade; and why are we without imports? Why is it, that a city exporting eighty or ninety millions of dollars annually, is so insignificant in that important branch of commerce? Because of the remoteness and uncertainty of our market—our being without a speedy, rapid, and cheap communication with the interior country that seeks New-Orleans as a market for its agricultural productions. It is in our power to make New-Orleans a large importing city, by carrying out the objects of this Convention, and facilitating access between New Orleans and every portion of the valley of the Mississippi, which is tributary to our trade; and without rail-roads, this communication cannot be established to compete successfully with the active enterprise of our Northern rivals. Under present and past circumstances, this city could not pretend to carry on importing extensively, when imports from those countries we trade with, were such here, were either cut off by distance from the country that would become customers for these imports, by delays or uncertain navigation, or, when these facilities were at command, the goods imported had either become unsaleable or unfashionable, leaving the importer the alternative of waiting for the return of another season, at the expense of interest and multiplied expenses, which, under any circumstances, takes away all chance of profit. But, build the proposed rail-roads, place it within our power to travel to Nashville in twenty hours, Memphis in twenty hours, and all the important points of the Eastern valley of the Ohio and Mississippi in a like quick time, and our own Western borders and Texas in a few hours, then New-Orleans will be a city of imports, the produce of this rich agricultural empire will flow into her lap, not as a mere place of transit, but to be exchanged for the productions of other countries; then will New-Orleans begin the fulfilment of her destiny, and become renowned and famous among the cities of the world.

I propose to illustrate the advantages of an importing trade over one of mere export. We all know that the agencies employed in receiving, selling and shipping fifty thousand bales of cotton, are very small, and yet fifty thousand bales of cotton, at present cost, would produce $1,500,000. Suppose the proceeds of this cotton was brought back in the manufactures of Birmingham, Manchester, Lyons, or any European city, how many agencies would be required to distribute it through all the channels between the importer and the consumer? Judging from the subdivisions of such employments in Northern cities, the number would be very great; but these people not only want storehouses and shops, but want houses to live in; and with the demand for stores, shops and houses, would spring up a demand for builders, artisans and laborers, and agents of every description; our vacant lots would soon be covered by improvements, our vacant houses tenanted by an active and industrious population, that would become permanent and progressive. These are the elements of a solid prosperity, and what New-Orleans most needs. A mere city of transit commerce can never be a great city. You may talk of receipts of cotton, sugar, and tobacco—they have done all for you they ever will do. You must now rely on something else, and this reliance is mainly dependent on increased local pursuits and increased interior communication, such as New-York and every Northern city has established.

I fear I tax your patience, but our present circumstances demand from every citizen an attention to facts; and your time cannot be better employed than in listening to those I am detailing. It is a constant subject of complaint that New-Orleans has an insufficient banking capital—that money commands a high price. The error on this subject is very prevalent at home and abroad. Boston, which is constantly rung in our ears as an example of wealth and enterprise, divided from her commerce and manufactures, has about eighteen millions of banking capital, whilst New-Orleans has about seventeen millions of fixed capital, or about ten millions of active capital. The cities of New-York and Brooklyn have a banking capital of twenty-eight millions, Philadelphia under ten millions, and Baltimore under seven millions; New-York and Brooklyn have near six times the population of New-Orleans, and less than three times an excess in banking capital. Philadelphia has a population nearly four times greater than New-Orleans, and her banking capital is not so great. Baltimore, that has a population near fifty per cent. greater than New-Orleans, has three millions less banking capital than New-Orleans. Cincinnati has not more than one-eighth, and St. Louis not more than one-twentieth of the banking capital of New-Orleans; and yet these cities have advanced with astonishing progress, and have almost doubled their populations, whilst New-Orleans is comparatively stationary.

The deposits of the banking institutions of New-Orleans bear a proportion to those of other cities, equally favorable with that of their capitals; and I assume that fixed capitals and deposits in any city are an index of its aggregate capital and means. With these facts, I proceed to make another statement, warranted by my knowledge of the facts: that the average price of money in New-Orleans since 1842, has been 33 per cent. cheaper than the average price in Boston; 25 per cent. cheaper than the average price in New-York, Philadelphia or Baltimore; and 50 per cent. cheaper than in Cincinnati and St. Louis. When I speak of the average price, or the dearness or cheapness of money, I mean the current price demanded and paid on good and undoubted security; and I am particular on these points of comparison, as intending to show that the circulation of capital depends on the manner of its employment, and that small capitals, actively circulated where employments are multiplied and various, achieve a great deal more than large capitals, located in a city with her whole dependence founded on a mere export commerce. The operation of unwise laws affecting capital, will, in all countries, restrain and embarrass its free circulation; and when the laws are not such as to endanger the safe employment of capital, it will certainly disappear.

We have more capital in the Southern states, for our wants, than any portion of the Confederacy. The absence among us of the prosperity so manifest in the Northern and Middle states, does not arise from any want of capital, but proceeds from the utter neglect of the South to her true and substantial interests, and the discouragements that stand in the way of investments. The unfortunate circumstances of the public credit of Mississippi and Arkansas, and the overthrow of confidence, public and private, when public obligations are disregarded, visit on the whole Southwest penalties that are fatal to the spirit of enterprise, and above all, to that confidence that nourishes and protects it. The demoralizing influence of plighted public faith weakens the attachment of the people to the government, and capital and property will never trust its protection to a government without this moral support. Capital will never flow into a state that neglects the fulfilment of her public engagements; but all the savings of capital, derived from industry and economy, in such a state, will leave it—take wings and fly away to places of greater security. At this time, and within the last year, the chief buyers of stocks, for investment in New-York, were Southern people—yes, Mr. President, people from Mississippi and Alabama; and yet, if capital is so scarce and money so dear, as is daily announced, why does it happen that this country is furnishing capital to buy Northern stocks? furnishing capital to enable our active and enterprising rivals to extend their highways and power? furnishing the aid that transfers to them supremacy, and weakens and impoverishes us? If you are true Southerners, and I believe you all are, go to work and change all this by ordaining such laws as will inspire confidence at home and abroad; go to work and imitate your victorious rivals, build roads and create stock at home, give the guarantee of honesty and security, and my word for it, you will not only entice back the capital that is leaving you, but invite it from abroad.

Whilst regarding our pursuits and laws as unfavorable to that circulation of capital known in other sections of the Union, there is another cause that is dealing out its influences. Latterly, there has sprung up, in consequence of the slavery agitation, an uneasy feeling. The wicked and insane meddling of the enemies of our institutions, of our peace and tranquillity, and the perpetual discussion of the question, North and South, contributes largely to unsettle confidence, and to work on the fears of the timid. I am not among the number to believe this evil is not to be overcome. The South, united in policy and interest, united by the ties of closer inter-communication, united by an extended and combined system of rail-roads, united by the development of her vast resources, and the building up of a manufacturing interest, will soon be in circumstances of power and prominence that will put at naught all the distractions that have threatened her peace, and endangered the security of the Union.

The building of rail-roads, the erection of manufactories, and the demand for the skill and labor that they everywhere create, will attract immigration to the South, will augment our white population, who will become more permanent and settled in their pursuits; and this tendency to localizing population, will prove an element of increased security to the South, one which will hasten the recovery of her lost power.

Attention to these interests will achieve far more for the South than the discussion of the platforms of political quackery, invented to advance the pretensions of their projectors.

I again repeat that the cry of deficiency in capital is unfounded; we have it in abundance for all our purposes, if it can be concentrated and circulated as it is in

Wall-street. There has been no period in the last five years, notwithstanding its being marked with great revolutions in trade, that money was not obtainable in New-Orleans, on good security—I mean available and convertible security, such as is recognized and current in Amsterdam, London and New-York; I do not mean security with the incumbrance of notarial pledges, tacit mortgages, appraisement laws, fees to lawyers for collecting, and vexatious delays in realizing them. The money-lender is always the most timid of men; he has what you want, and is always willing to supply your wants, provided he is sure of escaping trouble and vexation, and the security you offer is good; but when you ask him to employ attorneys to investigate any titles, and expose himself to any uncertainty, his compliance is at an end. Is it unreasonable to suppose a money-lender would be attracted by the securities and forms of law known in Louisiana; that he would hazard the profit on his loans by the fees paid to the agents of the law, and their punctual recovery by the delays of an appraisement law that extends the payment twelve months, when the property does not bring two-thirds of its cash value? It is the doubt and uncertainty produced by such a condition of laws, that curtail the circulation of capital, and make it dear to the agricultural classes of the country.

We possess the most favored country under the sun; we have immense tracts of uncultivated land, teeming with fruitfulness; and if we had wise laws, our region would become great and prosperous. Then a magnificent system of internal improvement will spring up, and New-Orleans will not only be the greatest exporting, but become one of the largest importing and commercial cities in the world. She will then be to the Southwest what New-York is to her dependencies: the mart of a great and powerful empire.

Digressing from this branch of the subject, I pass to another subject of interest to the Southwest. After the war of 1812, the manufactories of the North were found in such a condition as to need the protection of government. That protection has been kept up ever since, until it has built up at the North a vast manufacturing power and population. The generosity of the South has fostered an interest which has now become an overwhelming one. In the meantime, we have done nothing towards fostering industry in our midst. The example of the North has been lost upon us. We have neglected the means by which she has grown great. I agree in the remark of Mr. Pike, of Arkansas, that if we wish to be equals in the Union, we must be equal in power, strength and resources. There is nothing gained by talking of the progress and enterprise of the North. Let us follow the steps by which she has reached her present greatness. When we embark in like enterprises, we shall show a like degree of prosperity and power. When we embark in manufacturing—when we increase the employments of the white man, a large and industrial population will flow thither. The Southwest will be peopled by an efficient and substantial population, which will develop its great resources, and add to our power and strength in the Union, a population identified with us in interest and feeling.

There is an evil under which our city and several of the Southern states suffer, the removal of which is essential to our prosperity, and which will be one of the greatest blessings of rail-roads. I allude to the want of location—of permanency in our population. The annual flight and dispersion of our citizens is a great drain upon the prosperity of New-Orleans. I scarcely feel I have a local habitation. So it is with a large majority of our people. Local attachments are necessary to the permanent prosperity of every community. When we have a ready access by rail-road to a country adjacent and tributary to our city, where we may escape for a time the heats of summer, and be within convenient distance of our place of business, our population will cease to fly every year to Europe and the North. These great roads will enable us to draw closer the bonds of friendship and intimacy with our brethren in other states. They will learn, by intimate association, to regard us with kindlier feelings; we shall bring back pleasing recollections, enlightened intelligence, enlarged views,—and a stronger love of this great and glorious Union. We shall then become one people,—one in feeling, in interest, in sympathy, and in devotion to our noble and beneficent institutions.

In a political point of view, these roads are scarcely less important and necessary to the South. West of us lies a vast and noble country, capable of sustaining millions. This country is not surpassed by any in the Union in fertility. All that is necessary is to give ready access to it. Penetrate this region with rail-roads, and in a few years those fertile plains will be filled by a numerous, busy and energetic population. There will arise new states here, and our representation in Congress will soon equal that of the North. Aside, then, from the mere profit, there are high considerations of state pride, patriotism and feeling, to be gratified. With such motives and objects, shall we fail to do our duty? Shall we grow cold and indifferent to our true interests—to the glory, honor and prosperity of our own Southwest?

Not the least of the good effects of these rail-roads, deserving our serious consideration, is their promotion of the moral and social condition of man. They bring people closer together, wear off, by continual contact, the prejudices and unkindly feelings which sometimes arise between men; they promote knowledge and science, by interchange of ideas; and lastly, they promote the advancement of republicanism and free institutions, by showing to the world the development, the happiness and wealth that can be attained under such a form of government, and by ennobling and strengthening our attachment to our country. Here is a civilizing and conquering power, greater than that of all the cannon that ever belched forth destruction on the battle field. The rail-road is the greatest of all missions, save that alone of our Saviour.

Such are some of the benefits of the measure which we have assembled to promote. I trust in God that our labor will not have been in vain. I cannot permit my mind to doubt that we shall all return to our homes with the determination to go to work, and rest not until the glorious consummation is realized. When we change our bad laws—when we draw closer the bonds with our brethren in other sections of our Union, and grow more friendly and sociable—when we covenant together to build rail-roads throughout our rich territory, promoting trade, commerce, population and production, then will the Southwest enter upon a career which will shame the greatness of the richest empires of the world, and this become the Empire City of the Southwest, the centre of prosperity, of wealth, of enlightenment, of the arts and sciences, and of all that makes a people great and free!

MEMPHIS AND LOUISVILLE RAIL-ROAD.

SPEECH OF J. T. TREZEVANT, OF TENNESSEE.

Mr. President and Gentlemen of the Convention:

When I recollect that the Convention has often been addressed by gentlemen much more able to instruct and interest than myself, and when, on looking around me, I can recognize scarcely a dozen familiar faces, I may well feel some diffidence in rising at all. But deeming the introduction of the report of the committee on routes so appropriate an occasion for offering the few remarks which I shall make, and viewing one of the routes reported upon by the committee of vast importance, not only to the city which I, in part, represent here, but also to the city of New-Orleans, I will venture to claim the indulgent attention of the Convention while I endeavor to present the peculiar claims this road has upon the citizens of New-Orleans, as well as upon the citizens of Tennessee.

New-Orleans, Mr. President, is engaged in a grand game of chess. Her opponents are the important cities on the Atlantic seaboard, from Boston to Charleston—New-York being her principal antagonist. The pieces with which the game is played, are the great *natural* avenues of commerce, and the *artificial* ones which man is making. The prize is one of such magnitude, that it will bring to the victor the seat of empire. To the loser will surely come commercial dependence. A few, a very few years will decide the contest; and when we know, that in it is involved the commercial independence, not only of New-Orleans, but of the Southwest, and when we also know that, with this commercial independence, is intimately blended the political independence of the South, we may well regard the game with deep interest, and venture to suggest any move by which this sort of vassalage to the North may be averted. New-Orleans has no children to play with. Her adversaries are not easily blinded by the moves on the board. On the contrary, they are vigilant, energetic and skilful. New-Orleans has great natural advantages—advantages which, at first sight, appear sufficient to secure the victory, but which have made her self-reliant and almost indifferent to the necessity of aiding those natural by artificial advantages. So secure has she felt, as the mistress of the commerce of this vast valley, that, until lately, she has wanted energy and activity. This Convention, Mr. President, have listened to the glowing accounts of her greatness, given by some of her most distinguished sons; they have been told of her impregnable position—of her vast resources—of her independence of aid from any quarter—of her ability to accomplish a brighter destiny yet. But, sir, eloquence cannot set aside the force of facts and figures. These are the stern arbiters to which, in a matter of this kind, we *must* pay deference. Speaking facts, as I do, to practical men, I may say to the citizens of New-Orleans, "You have looked on that picture; now look on this." And I beg to say, sir, that if my picture is not as flattering as the wishes of her people might fancy, I will yet say it is sketched by no unfriendly hand; for the welfare of New-Orleans and of this valley are one.

As the basis of the few remarks I shall make, I submit these three propositions as conclusive, to wit:

1. The commerce of the Ohio valley region has contributed more towards enriching New-Orleans, and is now worth more to her, than the commerce of any other portion of the Union.

2. As valuable as this commerce is, she is more likely to lose it than any other trade she has, by the energetic movements of New-York and other Atlantic cities.

3. To retain this valuable trade, which is about leaving New-Orleans for the Atlantic seaboard, that city is deeply interested in the construction of a rail-road from Memphis to Louisville.

Until you glance at the map of the Union, Mr. President, you will not have an accurate idea of the extent of what may appropriately be called "the Ohio valley region," which is *naturally* tributary to New-Orleans. It comprises an extent of country which, lying on each side of the Ohio River, and watered and fertilized by its many tributaries, contains not much less than 200,000 square miles, and an enterprising, industrious, wealthy and intelligent population, numbering some five or six millions. It is that portion of the great Northwest which has heretofore thrown down upon her wharves the largest part of her wealth. You may have some idea of the vast producing-capacity of that region when I state, that during the year 1850, nearly 3,000 landings were made at Memphis by steamers passing to and from New-Orleans; and of that number, nearly one-half were out of the Ohio River and its tributaries. I might spend an hour, sir, in endeavoring to bring facts to sustain my first proposition; but this one is worth them all. It is powerfully suggestive, and eminently deserves consideration. Nor is this trade like that which comes from the more southern region at present. From the states lying south of the Ohio valley, New-Orleans receives cotton and sugar almost exclusively; but from that valley, the products are greatly diversified, giving employment, in their purchase and sale, to a much larger number of citizens, and thus serving to add more to population.

In illustrating my second proposition, Mr. President, I need but recur to the causes which induced this Convention. Had New-Orleans felt as commercially secure as she did ten years since; had she not begun to realize the fact, that some of her former dependencies are looking out for other commercial connections; had she not felt that her commerce and her greatness are gradually declining, though the country which has built her up has been rapidly increasing in population, productions and wealth, she never would have called this Convention. But she finds powerful rivals in the field; invaders, if you will, but invaders possessed of means and of energies which, if contemned, will soon become irresistible.

Look, sir, at that map, on your right. Is it not illustrative of both my first and second propositions, when it is seen that every important rail-road from the Atlantic points towards that Ohio valley? The rivals of New-Orleans know that *there* is the wealth which built her up; they know that this wealth is but just in its infancy; they know that the difficulties of navigation which the commerce of that region must encounter in getting to New-Orleans, begin at Louisville and end at Memphis. Louisville being the commercial heart of that valley, any railroad from the Atlantic, terminating within a circle one hundred miles from that city, will command the vast traffic of that country, unless a counter move is made by New-Orleans. So serious are the obstructions to this commerce, and so long do they often continue, that, in point of time, Louisville is often further from New-Orleans than from Liverpool. With these difficulties, how can the trade between New-Orleans and the Ohio valley continue, when the capital and the enterprise of New-York are offering to that people artificial channels of communication that are certain, speedy and regular?

I now come to my third proposition, Mr. President; and as it is self-suggestive, it requires but few words from me. A rail-road from Memphis to Louisville will throw all the commerce of that Ohio valley upon the Mississippi at Memphis. With such a connection, New-Orleans will be as near the heart of that valley as any city on the Atlantic, save Charleston; and with the means of throwing that commerce upon the Mississippi at Memphis, competition in transportation is out of the question. And, in addition to the advantages which this cheap medium of transportation on the Mississippi would give her over other rivals, she has all the advantage of climate and country in which to build the road necessary to give her this connection.

Now, sir, let me ask, especially of the citizens of New-Orleans, if any other rail-road which they are about constructing, can be finished soon enough to save to them this valuable trade? Three years more will see the leading Atlantic cities in full connection, by rail-road, with that valley, bringing it within fifty hours of New-York, and forty hours of Charleston. Can New-Orleans reach this valley by her great Nashville road within that time? Can she do so even in ten years? Let her note the time it took to build any leading rail-road in the country, and she has the answer. It is little short of four hundred miles from Cincinnati to St. Louis; and yet a late contract for a rail-road between these cities, stipulates for five years for its completion, though running through a populous, wealthy, and a *rail-road* country. New-Orleans is upwards of seven hundred miles from Louisville. Let her citizens make a *reasonable* computation of the time it will take to build that great connection, and they will find it must be finished *too late* to save them. But *one* move can be made in time to save that vast trade; and that is, a road from Louisville to Memphis. That built, and the wealth of that trade retained, it will make certain, and expedite the construction of her other grand enterprises.

Viewing this work so pressingly important to this city, Mr. President, I can but regard it as the first blow she should strike in order to recall that tide of wealth which is about leaving her.

I should, perhaps, have stopped here, Mr. President, had I not heard what I deemed some strange remarks from two of the most prominent and enterprising citizens of this city. Mr. Benjamin, in his eloquent manner, told us that New-Orleans needed no aid from abroad; that some of her friends were needlessly alarmed at her situation; and that she was impregnable. Let me ask, who commands the Pacific trade via Panama? Is it New-Orleans? No, sir. It is New-York—a city as far again from Panama as is New-Orleans? Is she impregnable, *then?* Should not this trade all pass through New-Orleans? Surely: and yet it is controlled by merchants a thousand miles further from the Isthmus than she is. What guarantee have her citizens that, when Mr. Benjamin shall have built his Tehuantepec road, New-York will not control that as she now does the Panama transit?

But, sir, the prices current for the past year, which has this morning been laid upon your table, contains facts of grave importance, and well calculated to create some suspicions about the impregnability of New-Orleans. It shows the condition of her export trade in '48 and '49 as compared with '50 and '51, as follows:

In '48–'49 the exports were—		In '50–'51 the exports were—	
Barrels Flour	778,000	Barrels Flour	583,000
" Pork	466,000	" Pork	192,000
Hhds. Bacon	672,000	Hhds. Bacon	462,000
Kegs Lard	1,246,000	Kegs Lard	739,000
Barrels Beef	60,000	Barrels Beef	43,000
Corn	1,465,000	Corn	535,000

A diminution which is only too suggestive of the decline of trade. We find the same facts with regard to arrivals. In '48 and '49, 2,981 vessels arrived in this port; and in '50 and '51, only 2,144; and during the former year, 3,022 steamboats landed at the very quays; and during the latter, 2918. These are stern facts which cannot be blinked for a moment, and should be remembered by every one interested in the questions occupying our attention.

And it must be remembered that this decline in trade is not because the country furnishing these articles has produced less; for they have increased in amount; but it is because the products have found other markets; and *what New-Orleans has lost, New-York has gained.*

We have been told too, sir, that New-Orleans does not need capital; that she has more, for her population, than any city in the Union. I am not here to controvert that opinion; for it comes from too high a source. But I will say, that, if this be so, she has made bad, very bad use of it; and it but proves another thing—*that New-Orleans needs men of enterprise more than any thing else.* Position is not every thing; for Norfolk, with the best harbor on the Atlantic, has suffered Baltimore, comparatively an inland city, to take away the commerce that legitimately belongs to her. Enterprise often outbids nature. New-Orleans needs a few more such men as Robb and Benjamin—men of *will*, with energies rightly directed. The personal history of each of these gentlemen forcibly illustrates what energy and enterprise can accomplish, even *without* position. Then what may they not do *with* it?

The citizens of this city, Mr. President, forget the old adage, that "God made the country, but man makes the town;" and seem to fancy that Providence had the building up of New-Orleans, and will take good care of it. They may awake from this dream too late. *She* is in danger—not the country; and the surest and speediest way of averting commercial prostration, is by enlisting at once and liberally in constructing the road from Memphis to Louisville.

That move alone can check-mate the Atlantic cities. It will turn again upon her that tide of wealth, which, until the era of rail-roads, floated to her wharves on the bosom of the Mississippi. It will bring back to her that prosperity which will make her truly the emporium of the South, as New-York is of the North. With this connection she may defy all rivalry. Without it, her destiny is that which is so distinctly foreshadowed in the decline of the past few years.

IMPORTANCE OF AN INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION IN THE SOUTH.

SPEECH BY J. B. D. DE BOW.

[In consequence of the lateness of the hour, the mere heads of this speech were touched upon by the author; but he has been induced since to write out the whole fully from his notes, and incorporate it among the proceedings of the Convention. The speech is substantially the same as that afterwards delivered by him, by request of the Convention, in Jackson, Mississippi. It is to be regretted that the suggestion of "Annual Conventions" was not carried out, the resolution having been introduced too late to be acted upon. We recommend the subject to the attention of the meeting of cotton planters, in May next, at Montgomery.]

Mr. President, and Gentlemen of the Convention:—

The committee who were entrusted by you with the duty of inviting the assembling of this Convention, has instructed me, one of its members, to recapitulate a few of the advantages which were proposed from its action; and also to suggest some practicable means, if such exist, of making that action felt widely, generally, and beneficially, throughout our limits, in the future.

The meeting of a body like this, constituted from so many sources, and embracing so much of the talent of so many great states, at a point like New-Orleans, which has been considered hitherto as dead to every other consideration than that of levying tribute upon nature, in sleepy apathy, is an event of no ordinary moment in the history of the Southwest. It evidences a revolution in progress among us, which even two years ago could not have been predicted without hazarding the character of sanity, and throws, amid all the discouragements by which we are surrounded, a broad gleam of sunshine upon our future hopes and prospects.

Yet, gentlemen, let us not argue too strongly, from what, after all, may be but the most deceptive appearances. Our disappointments have been so many and so bitter in the past, and we have had the chalice broken so often at our lips, that it is impossible, even with all the sanguine characteristics of our nature, not to be agitated with doubts and fears. Our addresses, our reports, our discussions, may be destined to be as evanescent as the breath which utters them, or as valueless as the paper upon which they are inscribed; and the heritage of our fathers be ours still, in all the future, to "resolve and re-resolve," yet "die the same."

I am wrong, perhaps, to doubt for the West—the giant West, which has sprung from swaddling clothes into colossal habiliments; which has promised nothing, yet fulfilled everything—but yesterday a wilderness, to-day, nourishing and supporting as many thronging, active, enterprising millions, nearly, as did Great Britain, when she resisted, during the Napoleon wars, the shock of all the armies in Europe. But what shall we say of the South—the old South, which fought the battles of the Revolution—which gave the statesmen, the generals, and the wealth of those early times—which concentrated then the agriculture, the commerce, and, even to some extent, the manufactures of the continent, but which has lost, or is losing everything else, save that of agriculture; and even this last resource growing less and less remunerative, threatens in the event to complete her beggary? How much has the South promised, and how little has she fulfilled? Her manufactures originated coeval with those of the North, and when there were not fifteen cotton factories in the whole Union, she had constructed an immense one in her limits. Nearly half a century has passed since then, and yet the South, though growing nearly all the cotton required for the world's consumption, leaves 29-30ths of the profitable business of its conversion into fabrics to other and to foreign hands!

And how has it been with our commerce? When New-England struggled with the whale in northern seas, the rich argosies of the South, laden with abundant products, were seeking the markets of all Europe. Seventy years before the revolution, Maryland, Virginia, and Carolina, as the chronicles tell us, furnished the entire exports of the colonies, and imported more largely than New-England or New-York. Fifty years before the Revolution things had but slightly changed, and the exports of New-York, New-England, and Pennsylvania together, were less in amount than those of the single colony of Carolina. Even in 1775, the exports of New-York were £187,000; Carolina, £579,000; Virginia, £758,000. Imports of New-York, £1,200; Virginia and Maryland, £2,000; Carolina, £6,000. Georgia, a new plantation, equalled New-York! As late as the close of the century, Charleston continued to contest the palm with New-York. But how has that struggle ended? Who dares grapple with that colossal city, without the certainty of being ground into powder? What has become of southern commercial competition, now that New-York and New-England conduct nine-tenths of the imports of the country and one-half of its exports, though nearly *all* of these exports, with which, of course, the imports are purchased, are of southern material, and more than an equal proportion of the imports are for southern consumption?* Thus it is calculated that the South lends from year to year a trading capital to the North amounting to nearly ONE HUNDRED MILLIONS of dollars, and upon which the North receives the entire profits! Can it be wondered at, then, that the North grows rich, and powerful, and great, whilst we, at best, are stationary?

The first steamship that ever crossed the broad Atlantic sailed from the southern port of Savannah; and in 1839, when the practicability of this description of navigation was fully demonstrated, Virginia was talking of negotiations with the French, in order that Norfolk might be made the terminus of a line contemplated from Havre—yet, at this day, throughout the length and breadth of the South, what steamer seeks a European port—though the North rapidly approximates to a daily line?

The South had within her limits once the largest rail-road in the world, and projected, and actually commenced constructing the first great rail-road across the mountains to the teeming West; yet how has she pursued this movement? Whilst the North has opened innumerable communications with the valley, and is draining it of the most valuable products, in return inundating it with the products of her workshops and her commerce, enriching herself beyond the dreams of her own enthusiasts, what single communication has the South to that valley, except what nature has given her—the great river and its tributaries—a communication which must soon be superseded by the wroks of art. After twenty years' experience, notwithstanding our early promise, and with equal population with the North, we have but one-third the actual miles of rail-road constructed, though our territory is five times as great. In other words, the North has twelve times, or including Texas, eighteen times the extent of rail-roads to the square mile that the South has; and each mile of northern territory has expended thirty times as much upon such roads as each mile of southern territory.*

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* The calculation is, of course, intended as an average one.

These are stubborn facts, gentlemen, whatever reason may be assigned for them; and though one or two of the southern states may constitute, in some sort, an exception, as for instance, Georgia, which has lately made rapid strides beyond her neighbors, no one can object to us that we have stated the proposition with general fairness and truth.

We have been content to be solely agriculturists, and to exhaust the fertility of an abundant soil, believing that all other pursuits being derivative only, were of less importance, and even dignity. The fashion of the South has been to consider the production of cotton, and sugar, and rice, the only rational pursuits of gentlemen, except the professions, and like the haughty Greek and Roman, to class the trading and the manufacturing spirit as essentially *servile*. I admit the day is passing away, but it is passing too late to save us, unless we display a degree of vigor and energy far beyond what past experience would bid us hope. The planters of the South perceive the position of peril in which we are placed. We have a slave force which has increased in numbers 711,085 in ten years, and which must be shut up forever within its present limits, though the productions of these slaves have not increased in value in the same proportion, or in anything like it.

Is this not a significant fact, and does it not encourage dark forebodings of the future? Yet the result is but natural, and clearly deducible from the rules of legitimate political economy—mere production from the soil soon finds its limit and limits population. Gentlemen of the West, you too already begin to feel this truth; for have you procured a market for your breadstuffs and provisions at all comparable to your capacity to supply them? Twenty years ago your exports were one-half what they are at present, though your population has increased *four-fold* since then; and when, in 1846, under the pressure of foreign famine, you exported three times your exports of the present year—you demonstrated the inexhaustible character of your granaries, and that want of *demand* which begins already to press so severely upon you.

The planters of the South have lately met in convention, at Macon, Ga., and propose another convention in May next, in Montgomery. Some of these delegates were sent to this convention. But what is it they propose? It is not to create a demand for their labor in its present exercise, or to create new results for that labor, but letting things remain as they are, to affix a certain arbitrary standard of price, and by a combination among themselves, preserve that standard, in defiance of all extraneous influences. It is barely possible that something may come off this scheme that shall tell upon their future prosperity. It is possible that there are other plans which may be adopted, more promising of success, or at least that something is practicable to relieve the planters, as things now stand; yet we must be allowed to entertain some doubt in the matter.

Gentlemen of the South and the West, the true mischief under which we labor stands upon the surface, and requires no probing to discover. Four times the number of grain growers find but a two-fold increased market for their products, and 750,000 additional slaves are becoming consumers in a larger degree than they are producers. Here is labor expended without profit—lost to all the purposes of improvement, and of advanced prosperity and wealth. Where, then, shall we look for a practical remedy? *We must diversify, or find new employment for labor.* And how is this to be done? I answer,

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* See address to the people of the South and West, in De Bow's Review for August, 1851.

I. *In the construction of a system of rail-roads through our limits.*—It is a merit of rail-roads, that they have the highest influence in diversifying the industry of a people. They open a country and extend population, thus creating the very trade that supports them. They raise the price of lands by bringing them into more immediate connection with market, and thus pay back the investment, without reference to their actual earnings, which, in addition, are usually as large as those of other descriptions of investment. They build up cities as all experience shows, and by giving certainty, speed and economy to communication, make manufactories practicable where otherwise we in vain would look for them. The example of Georgia is in point, where a thousand villages are springing up and manufactories extending, thus acquiring for her the reputation of the Massachusetts of the South. Every rail-road in New-England develops in its course manufacturing villages, and few of these villages may be found there without such communication with the capital. The South has been content with the cumbrous machinery of her wagons, and with the frequently interrupted and dangerous navigation of her rivers; and this has been the case with the West. Thus nine-tenths of our country has been literally shut out from market for more than half the year, and, during the remainder, pays the penalties of delays and losses which are never incident to rail-roads, and which counterbalances the advantages of cheaper freights, though, as to actual cheapness, it may be affirmed that rail-road communication among us could be made as cheap, all things considered, as that conducted at present on the rivers. We know that the immense steamboat interest of the West is now actually paying no dividend, being a most hazardous business, and that it is so much capital almost unproductively employed, and thus lost to the country. Yet, what are our rivers and our steamboats? Who trusts them without saying his prayers as he enters, or having strong disposition to make his will?—floating Ætnas, which belch forth their bolts of death in the moments of our greatest fancied security and repose. Never could a convention have met at a more propitious moment than this. We have just passed through a season of the most frightful losses of life on our rivers, and have witnessed a prevalence of low waters, calculated to break up the commerce of any people upon earth. Look at the Ohio, the Cumberland, the Red, and the Arkansas rivers; until the other day, the memory of man scarcely runs back to the time when we could navigate them securely with our larger steamers; and hardly have the showers descended, and their waters swelled again, before several of them are locked up in icy repose. Can a people, relying upon such communications, expect prosperity? Can industry thrive, or must they not remain in a semi-primitive state, and incapable of that combination of effort which alone secures natural prosperity? Place the North in a similar position for twelve months, and her towering manufacturing palaces crumble into ruins, and her ships rot upon their stocks. She found even her great canal to the West, her Mississippi river, would not suffice, but built two great rail-roads, almost the greatest in the world, parallel to it. Our planters frequently lose more by their incapacity to reach market during high prices, than would build a rail-road to their doors. It is believed that sufficient was lost last year, in that manner, to have half built the road from New-Orleans, through Mississippi, to the Tennessee line. What embarrassments, too, have our merchants experienced during the same time, from the impossibility of receiving the consignments, upon which heavy advances have been made? Is not this disastrous to trade, and have we not felt it so?

No people on earth have the means of building rail-roads so economically, so speedily, and with such certainty of success, as we of the South and West. As compared with the North, what we have already built has cost, on the average, not half so much. Our country is level—we have no right of way to purchase. We have abundance of timber on the spot, and will only pay the expense of working it; and throughout the South, have an available cheap negro labor, which, if diverted from agriculture into this field would diminish nothing of the money value of our crops, and thus make the rail-roads a clear gain to the wealth of the country.

Wherever negro labor has been applied, it has been with great success. Of the 700,000 negroes, whose labor has added nothing to the wealth we had ten

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years ago, could 100,000 be diverted to the construction of rail-roads, the South might open several thousand miles of rail-road every year, and would have the same means of ironing them that she has now from her other resources. Let no one object that our population is too scattered; this will condense it, and invite emigration, which now takes altogether a northern direction, because, here nothing is held out to it. Besides, denseness of population has not been the secret of success to the North. New-England, though no denser than Ohio, has three times the extent of rail-road; and the small state of Maine, though less dense in proportion to territory than Kentucky or Tennessee, has actually constructed more miles of rail-road than both of those great states together. Even at the South, Georgia, with a million of inhabitants, and the usual density, has twice or three times the extent of rail-road in her limits than all the Southwest together; and South Carolina has more than Louisiana, Texas, Mississippi, Alabama and Arkansas, though her population is not one-fourth so great. It is common to say that the people of the North have greater propensities to travel, and thus more readily support their rail-roads than we would. Now this is not true, as we know that no people are more sociable and fond of locomotion than the southern people, even with all the difficulties which environ them. And were it true, we know that the disposition to travel in the North did not create the rail-roads, but was created by it, being proved by the fact that most of their great roads carry from five to ten times the number of passengers which were argued for them on the basis of their previous travel, and several times as much freight.

Another advantage enjoyed by the South and the West is, that there is an immense public domain belonging to the government, and will soon belong to the states, which can be procured for the mere asking, and which will go a great way towards building our rail-roads. The grant to the Mobile road, it is thought, will iron the whole route. Texas and Louisiana, and Mississippi and Alabama, are peculiarly favored in this manner.

There has been a principle adopted in Tennessee which I hope to see adopted in all the southern states, and which this convention should recommend, viz., that the states endorse the bonds of all companies for the purchase of iron after they have laid the track, etc., and take its mortgage upon the work to secure it in the event the companies fail to keep down the interest on their bonds, or cancel them at maturity. This is a plain duty of the states; and in addition to the power vested in the counties and parishes to tax themselves, would secure for us in ten years results which not even a dreamer could anticipate. A sound division would be for the state to take 1-3 interest, (Virginia takes 3-5,) individuals and corporations of cities 1-3, and let the rest be obtained by taxation. Thus, all interests would be called on to contribute to the construction of our great proposed lines.

Whence this disposition to throw the valley of the Mississippi into the lap of the North, thus rolling, as it were, commerce up stream, and reversing the natural state of things? The rail-roads and the canals point in that direction, and every thing is absorbed in the rapacious exactions of New-York and Boston. Is there not a greater reciprocity between the interests of the South and the West than between those of the West and the North? Is there not a demand here for western produce, and one that will grow as we advance together? Have we not ports and harbors at least equal to the North? Are not the Northwest and the West as much interested in keeping up the speediest and the best outlet to the Gulf of Mexico, as they are to the Atlantic seaboard? And are not rail-roads superseding every other means of outlet? We scarcely yet appreciate the importance of the Gulf of Mexico, this great *Southern sea*, which should as much be guarded by the South as the British channel is by the English. Look at its fertile and abundant islands, capable of supplying the tropical products of the world, if in hands adequate to their development;* and who can doubt that, before the century has passed away, these islands will be over-run, peaceably or even forcibly, by a people who, in fifty years, have planted ten millions of freemen in a wilderness! Great God, can we even conceive what will be the future importance of these islands! But then, look further. The Gulf of Mexico sweeps into the Carribbean Sea, and unlocks for us the whole of South America, a region which, with Anglo-Saxon amalgamation, may, in the progress of history, be as important as the present importance of our own country. In its great bosom blend the waters of the Mississippi and the Amazon rivers which dwarf all others in the world. There is a wilderness of treasures in this valley of the Amazon. "Of more than thrice the size of the valley of the Mississippi," says Lieut. Maury, "the valley of the Amazon is entirely inter-tropical. An everlasting summer reigns there. Up to the very base of the Andes the river is navigable for vessels of the largest class. All the climates of India are there. Indeed, we may say, from the mouth to the sources of the Amazon, piled up one above the other, and spread out Andean-like over steppe after steppe in beautiful unbroken succession, are all the climates and all the soils with the capacities of production that are to be found between the regions of perpetual summer and everlasting snows." The Gulf of Mexico opens to us the Pacific and the Indies, through whichever of isthmean routes may be selected, though that of Tehuantepec is most clearly that for the Southern and Western states. Even should a route across the continent be adopted, that route must cross the Mississippi at a Southern point, if Texas be true to herself, and thus the importance of converging Western roads in this direction.

II. Having constructed a system of rail-roads, netting every section of our territory, the South and West will naturally resort to manufactures, which is our second great remedy for the evils which the present shows, and the future foreshadows. Hamilton Smith, of Kentucky, has demonstrated that where the coal and the iron, and the provisions are, there will be the seat of manufacturing empire; and by a calculation as close as it is perfect, has demonstrated for the Ohio Valley the prospective Manchesters and Lowells of the Union. We think this the truth, but not the whole truth. The South has only to make a systematic and combined movement to break down Northern supremacy in this particular. What practical difficulty is there in their way of her supplying the whole demand, of America at least, for coarse cottons and yarns. The material may be used upon the spot where it is grown, thus saving all the expense of shipment and insurance, and interest and commissions, equivalent to two or three cents a pound, or to a protective tariff enjoyed by the South over the North of from 25 to 33 per cent. Our experiments, when fairly tested, have been successful; and it is worthy of remark, the embarrassments of Northern mills during the last year were not in the same degree felt by those of the South, whilst Southern cotton goods already take the palm, even in Northern markets. Our surplus negro labor has here a wide field open, and every one familiar with the merely mechanical and unintelligent operation of tending the machinery of a cotton-mill, will admit that negro labor, properly organized and directed, can be as effective as the ignorant and miserable operatives of Great Britain. Where it has been tried, and the experiments have been numerous enough, it has proved successful. If twenty planters, working twenty hands each, were to set aside on the average five of the hands for purposes of manufacture, there would be one hundred hands, in addition to the younger ones now almost unproductive. The machinery for these hundred hands, and the rude buildings, would not exceed $40,000, or $2,000 each, and thus, without materially diminishing their production of cotton, it could be thrown into a shape which would double its value. Are such combinations among the planters practicable? If they are not, they are at least practicable to our people. But, says one, we have not the capital to spare. I admit, we have not at present, because it is diverted into different channels; but if we will withdraw it, we shall find there is quite enough among us. Or even if we had not the capital, it will be easy to invite it from all sections of the Union, and the world, if we can demonstrate, as we can, a higher degree of profit for it here. But we must have laws to favor such organizations, and a sound and liberal system of financial credit and banking. How much of the mighty capital of the North is foreign, accumulated by debt, or invited by the hope of profit? The South can have as much, if she will but make the effort.

But, gentlemen, we should soon have capital enough and to spare, if we could add to our present earnings those that we sit patiently by and see England and the North realize by the conversion of our products into fabrics, and even those for our own use. There would be added $40,000 to $80,000 annually to the capital of the South, which would soon give us a degree of power and wealth enjoyed by no other people.

III. The next point, gentlemen, to which the attention of the South should be called in the diversification of its industry, is the *extension of its foreign com-*

merce. Can any one assign a sufficient reason for the fact, that the whole business of exchanging the products of the South for those which are required from other countries for our consumption, is left to other hands? Northern writers assure us that they make from forty to fifty millions annually out of this business which we complacently leave to them. You may say that the North is more maritime—this is true, but not necessarily, as we infer from the fact that the southern foreign commerce in the early periods of our history was relatively much larger than now; and in the nations of the old world, the most maritime and commercial were always those of the South. It is only lately that the trident of the seas is swayed by northern hands—a sufficient proof that, in the nature of things, there is no necessity for it. It has been the result of artificial causes.

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A committee of the Boston Council, in accounting for the extraordinary progress of that city, fix it in the extensive construction of rail-roads, and the establishment of semi-monthly steamers to Europe. The business of these steamers, it was at first thought, would be simply the mail and passengers. Yet the freights, instead of paying government duties as they did at first, of $29, have reached as high as $217,000 on a single trip. Before the establishment of these steamers, Lieut. Maury tells us, there was not in a whole year a single vessel clearing from Boston for Liverpool, so completely had New-York monopolized the business. New-York led the way in the establishment of European packets; though it was universally argued that they would not succeed. At first, three small vessels of 300 tons each were put on. They sailed on regular days, freight or no freight. They took at the lowest rates rather than go in ballast. Public interest attached to them, and they increased in numbers—vessel after vessel, and line after line being added, until these regular vessels were up at last for every port in the world. Boston, nearly undone by the enterprise of New-York, turned into a new channel, and fostered a line of foreign *steamships*. Upon this the Gothamites were not content to look long in idleness. They got the government committed in their aid, and then launched out into the business of steamships—performing, in the brief period of two or three years, most wonderful results in this particular. To England, to France, to South America, the Pacific, the West Indies, the Gulf—to southern ports everywhere—these steam lines are in active and daily operation.

Thus, gentlemen, you see how the extensive commerce of the North has been built up. You may build rail-roads, erect factories, hold conventions, but you cannot redeem the commercial apathy of the South unless you are content to adopt the same expedients. Where have we, throughout the length and breadth of the South, packet-ships sailing for Europe, on a regular day, freight or no freight? We have none. The result is, that business which cannot wait for time or trade, goes naturally where there are such ships. What single steam-ship have we from a southern port for Europe? Thus our correspondence, and our passengers, and our valuable return freights, must take the circuitous passage to the North. One of our southern cities has determined to remove this stigma, and have, we believe, with state aid, actually taken the stock for two steamers for Europe. Will the South favor this movement, or will these steamers, after a brief career, be bought up by the North, and placed on the California line? They will assuredly be, if southern men continue to find nothing good in Nazareth, and go seeking after the flesh-pots of a northern Egypt. In New-Orleans a year ago several enterprising gentlemen discussed the subject of a line of foreign steamers from this port. They got up a circular. They proposed a company of four hundred and fifty persons, subscribing $1,000 each, and two steamers of 1,500 or 1,600 tons burthen, capable of carrying two hundred passengers, and three thousand two hundred bales of cotton. The British Consul, Mr. Mure, a practical merchant, demonstrated that these ships would pay 42 per cent. per annum. Yet who has come forward to take a single share? and has not the whole projection already taken its place with the thousand others which have dragged the South down to her present level?

Gentlemen, will these things continue? You are aware that the people of Virginia have lately held a commercial convention, and determined, so far as they are concerned, they shall not continue. They even appointed delegates to this convention. More lately the planters of the South convened at Macon, Ga.

The continent of Europe consumes 600,000 bales of southern cotton, the most of which is obtained through Liverpool, thus exacting a tribute both from the producer and consumer. Any measures, says Col. Gadsden, which would tend to the distribution by direct intercourse with many markets what they may consume of cottons in exchange for the commodities they are prepared to offer in return, would, to some extent, remedy the revulsions which concentration at a single point produce; and, as supply and demand are made to harmonize, would in time lead to a more healthy and regular trade, and more steady and remunerating prices. The house of Hartsen & Co., of Amsterdam, proposed, through Mr. Taylor, to establish regular packet ships from Southern ports, whether freight shall offer or not, if the planters of the South will make consignments to them, for which they guarantee Liverpool quotations at the time of sale. Is not this a reasonable proposition? Yet will not men consider it, as they do everything else that makes for the advancement of the South, chimerical, and give it the cold shoulder?

Thirteen years ago the South was greatly aroused on this subject of her foreign trade, and several large conventions, embracing the talent and enterprise of half a dozen states, were held in Macon, in Augusta, in Charleston; but from this spasmodic effort we declined again into that torpor which has been exhausting our life blood. Some of the most gifted and practical sons of the South reported in its committees, and demonstrated as perfectly as could be done, the evil and the remedy.*

Never were more able and convincing papers put to the world—but we have not heard them. I trust that this convention will re-publish them among its documents.

Thus, gentlemen, we have a true picture of our past history and our present position. The agriculturalists, the merchants, the manufacturers, the internal improvement advocates, are represented here. We are here with credentials from executive offices, from municipalities, and public meetings, and represent ten or eleven states. It is difficult to get such a convention together. The work before us is great and pressing, and shall we be content to adjourn before it is performed?

Gentlemen, a great reform, like that which is necessary in our position, is not to be achieved in a day. It requires organization, agitation, the dissemination of information, the frequent meeting of practical men, memorials and addresses. The day of deliberation is at last followed by the day of action. It is thus that conventions have their great value. They bring about an association of effort, arouse dormant energies, stimulate emulation. They are a blessed invention of our popular institutions, and are not less in importance than the meeting of our constituted authorities.

It is the misfortune with us, that when we have been aroused in the past, it has been by paroxysms, and never followed by sustained efforts. We have come together in convention, but when the convention adjourned, there was the end of it. No body had power to act in the recess. The thing soon passed out of mind. Thus was it with the Commercial Convention of Augusta, of Macon, and Charleston—the rail-road meetings of Memphis and St. Louis; and thus will it be with those the other day of Richmond and Macon; and thus will it be with ours, unless we take some measures to prevent it; and what are those measures?

Let us preserve and perpetuate this organization. Let the members now present, who have been selected as judiciously as any that ever met in the country, resolve that they will continue these meetings, and carry on these discussions, until *all* the great fruits we desire are reaped. It may take years—be it so—but let us not adjourn absolutely now. Let this convention resolve itself into an association for the promotion of the great industrial interests of the Southern and Western states. Let us provide for its future *annual* meetings, say at Nashville, at Jackson, at St. Louis, at Mobile, at Charleston, etc. Let the next meeting be at Nashville, in January, 1853. Let us appoint committees now, in each of the states, to report at that meeting upon all the great questions. Let the Nashville Committee be charged with the duties of getting up the next convention, and sending out the address. Thus this convention will become in time the great centre of the industrial interests of this region. It will collect through its committees and correspondence extensive information, which will be distributed gratuitously at the annual meetings. No one can estimate the good that will be effected. It will be the focus to which leading practical minds will be drawn. It will be in session always by its committees. It will be felt each moment, and throughout all our limits. No more powerful agency could be devised. The men of science have found it so, with their society meeting, by turns, in all of the great cities of the Union. So with the physicians, whose convention adjourns over annually, from one part of the Union to another. Why should not a like plan be adopted by the practical and industrial interests which involve everything of our future hopes and prospects?

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* For proceedings of these Conventions, see De Bow's Review, vol. III. IV. V. VI.

Gentlemen, resolutions will be offered in the convention, corresponding with these views. I trust that they will be adopted, and that the members here assembled will pledge themselves to each other to continue to meet at the stated annual points; that they will prepare for these meetings by the collection of information, and if placed upon committees, that they will cordially and earnestly perform the duties entrusted to them; that they will operate upon their communities in keeping up fresh appointments of delegates, direct from the people, from year to year. The matter involves a little pains and a little expense, but who would decline as much in promoting such great results; and what citizen can be true to his country who would hesitate to serve her thus? The beneficent effects will accrue to us, and to those who may succeed us on the stage, in all the future. For this consummation let us devoutly pray.

SPEECH OF JUDGE MILLS,

OF TEXAS.

Judge Mills, of Texas, presented a paper containing, he remarked, some resolutions, relative to the withdrawal of the Texas delegation from the Convention, and he asked that the resolutions be laid on the table without being read, to be taken up tomorrow morning.

The delegation from Texas, he said, were in an anomalous position in the Convention, and he would observe that it was somewhat ominous that there was not a single representative on the floor from the part of Texas interested in the projected Opelousas road. Mr. Benjamin had—and he (Col. M.) acknowledged his great abilities as a speaker and as a lawyer, as well as his thorough knowledge of the aims of the people of New-Orleans—Mr. Benjamin had said in his speech last evening, that New-Orleans could afford no aid to local rail-roads. To the mind of Col. M., it was difficult to determine what local rail-roads were, for each local road was, in his opinion, a part of a grand system.

Mr. Benjamin had also said that at present there were but two routes that could receive the aid of New-Orleans, in neither of which was North-eastern Texas, the only part of the state represented in the Convention, interested. If these were the objects of the Convention, the few delegates from North-eastern Texas had no business in it; they had no right to vote on questions only affecting other states.

[Mr. Walker, of New-Orleans, conceived the gentleman had misinterpreted the remarks of Mr. Benjamin, and in order to dispose of this delicate matter at once, he (Mr. W.) moved that the resolutions be taken up and acted on forthwith.]

Judge Mills was happy to hear from a gentleman who appeared to understand the remarks of Mr. Benjamin better than he (M.) did, say that he misconceived their purport and tendency. He had supposed that Mr. Benjamin had said that New-Orleans could now only afford to aid two roads, the Opelousas and the Jackson roads, the former of which only concerned Texas.

Now this road was projected to run through the extreme southern part of Texas, and the people in the north and northeast had no interest whatever in it. His constituents asked nothing of New-Orleans, or of Louisiana, but to give them a road to the state line. Thence the farmers and planters of Northern Texas—maugre all suppositions to the contrary—would build the road, without foreign aid through Texas. He had lived in Texas some twelve years, and traveled over as much of the state perhaps as many in it, and his observation was that the country proposed as the route for the Opelousas road was the poorest in the whole state. A large portion of it produced nothing but salamanders and prickly pears, which, if articles of commerce, the mention of them in the market reports had thus far escaped his attention; whilst on the other hand, a road through the Red River country in Louisiana and North-eastern and Northern Texas to El Paso, there to meet the great Pacific road, would pass over a soil unsurpassed, in its whole extent, in fertility. Another matter to be considered, was that New-Orleans or Louisiana met neither with rivalry nor opposition on this route, whereas taking the southern route, there were Galveston, Matagorda, and San Antonio to contend with, who would instinctively oppose the project, inasmuch as it jeoparded their own prosperity, if not their very existence.

The interests of North-eastern Texas were identical with those of New-Orleans and Louisiana, and the whole northern part might be made equally tributary by the construction of the road he suggested. New-Orleans was their mart, and they were willing to bear a great deal and continue her as their mart. But gentlemen should bear in mind that the people were grumbling loudly; that besides the difficulties of reaching this market, there were other matters of serious complaint. One fact he would mention as an illustration; and what he said, he did not vouch for the truth of, but mentioned it as a matter generally talked of and grumbled at. Above the White Oak Shoals, on the Red River, it was a well-known fact, that only two steamboats had ever been wrecked, whilst below the Shoals casualties were of frequent occurrence. Yet the people above the Shoals complained that they were charged by the New-Orleans people more for insurance from above the Shoals than was charged for the whole distance below. Thus insurance to Shreveport was one and the half of one per cent.; to the Shoals, two and one half of one per cent.; and above the Shoals four per cent. And this, too, when the Boston offices insured goods by sea from that city, to above the Shoals, taking not only marine and river hazards, but also the risks of ox-cart navigation, for one and the half of one per cent.

And whilst on this subject he would speak of other matters the people in the country were talking much about, and in mentioning them, he wished to say that he spoke to the merchants and people of New-Orleans as a friend, as one who wished her to be prosperous. He did not know whether the things so freely talked about were true or not, but they were very generally spoken. The cotton merchants in New-Orleans, it was said, from the great competition among the presses, paid no expense whatever on the cotton consigned to them from the moment it was landed on the Levee; the presses, draying, and stowing it gratuitously to secure the compressing, was paid by the purchaser or shipper. Yet, when the planter looked over his account sales, he found drayage, he found storage, and when he asked the factor why drayage? why storage? was answered that the matter was regulated by the Chamber of Commerce. It might be so, he did not know to the contrary. It might be law in Louisiana, but the people in his country did not understand this way of making a living.

He desired to be understood that he did not say these things for himself. He liked New-Orleans; he had a great deal of fun in his annual visits to it, and had no idea of getting a fight on his hands by putting forth the statements as his own. He had simply repeated what the farmers and planters said.

Now, although Yankeedom did charge somewhat less for insurance, the people of Northeastern Texas felt that their interests were tied up with those of New-Orleans and Louisiana, and all they asked was that Louisiana should send a rail-road to the line. Let this be done, and they would give New-Orleans draying, storage, and stealage. He had now made his speech, and would withdraw his resolutions.

REMARKS OF J. P. BENJAMIN, ESQ.

[It is due to Mr. Benjamin to state, that our notice of his remarks is taken from one of the city papers, and as it was understood the speech would be written out, the notice is very meagre. On applying to Mr. Benjamin, he frankly stated that engagements of a very pressing character rendered it impossible that he could furnish the manuscript. As the speech was a long and powerful one in many respects, we could not omit a reference to it when publishing the Reports of the Convention.]

He commenced by remarking, that notwithstanding the sneers cast at New-Orleans, we had been acting not for two or three months past, but for some years. Many gentlemen had for a long time past been engaged in perfecting the measures which had finally resulted in the gathering of this Convention.

The position of New-Orleans was such that no combination could wrest from us its advantages eventually; there was a trade belonging to us which could not be taken away; but the question was, whether we should wait for the ultimate action by which the products of the vast Southwest should be brought to us, or whether we should anticipate that action by a present determined and concerted effort.

We desire to be bound up in a common interest with the South, and the Southwest, and the Northwest, and the East. To effect this we must commence with the great national object of obtaining the most direct line of communication with those states. By building a rail-road to Jackson we strike the direct Northern range, and bring ourselves in communication with the air line leading to New-York, or in other words, we are brought within three days travel of the Eastern states. After compassing the measures for securing the connection from Jackson Northward and Eastward, we should pause for the present. He was aware that many members of the Convention differed with him in opinion, but he felt bound to remind the gentlemen of the old adage that, if we endeavor to grasp too much, we may lose all.

Mr. Benjamin went on to remark that New-Orleans had not so far retrograded as many people were disposed to say. On the contrary, he could prove statistically that we had progressively advanced, and are still advancing every year. In addition to this we had a position superior to that of any spot in the Union. We were naturally destined to be the centre of a vast and immense trade now in its infancy, but destined in years not far removed to swell into gigantic proportions. It is a position which cannot fail eventually to secure to us the commerce of China and the East, for within a stone's throw we have the route which nature seems to have pointed out as the pass to the Eastern World. Of course he alluded to the Tehuantepec route, the success of which he could say, would shortly be placed beyond all peradventure. It will not be long before a neighboring republic will abandon its selfish policy, and surrender the route which we require for the peaceful purposes, not of ourselves, but of the world. When that route shall have been completed, the whole travel to the East must almost of necessity pass through New-Orleans. It opened a vista of boundless wealth, such as human imagination could scarcely conceive.

To encourage and foster these projects was, in his opinion, the object of the Convention. He, for one, could not at this stage promise any help to the local roads; he said so with a perfect knowledge of the displeasure which he would incur, on the part of many members of the Convention.

Mr. Benjamin then went on to review the prospects of obtaining the means for building these roads. Despite everything that had been said to the contrary, we shall certainly obtain a large amount of individual subscriptions. He had been accused of being too sanguine, but experience had demonstrated to him that the people of New-Orleans were exceedingly liberal, and always willing to put their hands in their pockets. Why, when the Tehuantepec enterprise was first started, the citizens of New-Orleans, without knowing whether they would obtain any equivalent, subscribed $500,000, and paid up 5 per cent. And when at a later period it became necessary to raise additional funds to prosecute the necessary surveys, ten citizens gave each $5,000 in cash. The liberal manner in which the citizens had come forward subsequently to sustain the Jackson Rail-road spoke loudly in their favor, and showed conclusively that the residents are willing and anxious to foster enterprise. The absentees are those who are not willing to contribute. In view of all these facts, he felt assured that we could rely on a large amount of voluntary subscriptions.

The next resource open to us consisted in Congressional grants of public lands, and this was a most important and desirable aid; one that ought to be secured as essential in the construction of rail-roads. We must therefore instruct our Representatives in Congress to urge these grants to the best of their abilities.

Having disposed of these two points, Mr. Benjamin approached the question of taxation. On this subject the gentleman was very explicit, and laid down his propositions most intelligibly. He was not in favor of irresponsible taxation, but of the only just and equitable mode of imposing contributions, that is, by the people themselves. Efforts had been made to place the matter in a wrong light, but he conceived there could not be the slightest impropriety in taxing property for the construction of improvements, when the property holders who are to be benefited by these improvements, assent to the tax. By these means also you reach the absentees, those vampyres who extract the last cent they can from the needy citizen, and spend their fortunes abroad.

Mr. Benjamin concluded by a digression on the general result of rail-roads. It has been the fashion of late to sneer at our forefathers and the principles inculcated by the founders of this country. It has been stated, and it is openly avowed by some, that we must go abroad and spread republican principles in foreign countries. That was not our mission—our aim ought to be far higher—far nobler. Anxious as he might be to see republican principles spread over the entire surface of the globe, he was not in favor of seeing them enforced by the bayonet, but by the peaceful conquest of rail-roads. Our mission was to convert the vast wastes and wildernesses of the country into smiling pastures and fertile fields. The whistle of the steam-engine was more consonant to the ears of the people than the trumpet of war. He for one did not wish to see this government intervene in the affairs of foreign nations; he desired to see this country grow up by the regular growth of sound muscular strength to a sturdy manhood. The example of such a country would be a more efficient intervention than that of the sword. It would do more to effect the spread of republican principles than all the cartridge-boxes in the universe. It would be a practical intervention, such as Washington himself would have approved of—a peaceful and quiet intervention, and the only one which the good sense of the American people will tolerate.

REMARKS OF COLONEL TARPLEY,

OF MISSISSIPPI.

Col. Tarpley, of Mississippi, desired to call up the resolutions presented last evening by Col. Lathrop, expressive of the necessity of the legislature altering the restrictive constitution, which prevents Louisiana, at present, from engaging in any extended system of financial improvements, and also pointing out several important projects which the Convention ought to foster,

The resolutions having been read, Mr. Lathrop offered another set as a substitute, which do not differ, however, materially from those previously presented. After, Mr. Lathrop had spoken briefly in support of the resolutions, Col. Tarpley arose, and spoke eloquently in their behalf, touching also on the important objects for which this Convention had assembled. He commenced by observing, that he did not expect to shed any new light on the subjects before this body, yet he was willing to contribute his humble mite in the great cause which had brought them together.

He came before the Convention as an humble advocate of those improvements which tended to advance human happiness, to increase the reward of labor, and to diffuse prosperity, wealth and comfort amongst the masses of the country. Col. Tarpley here alluded to the cold response with which his previous efforts had been met by the citizens of New-Orleans, when he attempted to arouse them to the necessity of perfecting a rail-road communication with Mississippi, and thence westward. Two years since, only a few persons could be gathered together to counsel on these important matters; but now, thank God, a great change had taken place. The small stone which had been set in motion had now grown into a mighty mountain, which was carrying everything before it in favor of rail-roads and internal improvements.

Col. Tarpley then took occasion to refer to the charges brought against some of the merchants of New-Orleans, by Col. Mills, of Texas. For many years past he (Col. T.) had been engaged in the cultivation of cotton, and had shipped his crops both to New-Orleans and Liverpool, and he was free to confess that the gentleman was mistaken. On the contrary, he had always found the New-Orleans merchants most liberal in their dealings,—far more so, indeed, than those abroad. He had not come, however, for the purpose of removing the imputation cast upon a worthy portion of the community of this city, but rather with the view of advancing a great scale of internal improvements, to connect the Mexican Gulf with the western section of our country, the first link of which would be the construction of a rail-road to Jackson, and thence to Nashville. Far be it from him, however, to say that his views were narrowed down to this project only; on the contrary, he was for giving a hearty support to that national undertaking, he might call it, which was destined to connect New-Orleans with our possessions on the Pacific, and eventually bring to us the trade of the Eastern world.

But the subject of immediate advantage, he conceived, for New-Orleans, was to regain, or maintain, at least, that trade which was being annually and rapidly extracted from us. The statistics of the commerce of New-Orleans, made up yearly on the 1st September, shows conclusively, that in 1850 and 1851, the tonnage and business of New-Orleans had decreased. The falling off was most decided. How was this tale accounted for? The labors of the husbandman had met with their due reward; no falling off had taken place in the production of those supplies upon which New-Orleans relied for her support: but still the stumbling fact was there, that New-Orleans had lost much. And naturally so; for it is within the past two years that the artificial channels, constructed at great cost, to wrest from us our commerce, have borne their rich fruits. Would the people of New-Orleans continue to look on calmly at this abstraction of their life-blood! He trusted not. Indeed, he felt a pride in looking at the intelligent body before him, and was assured by their presence and spirit that this state of things could last no longer. He could already perceive, in imagination, the iron arms stretching forth from the city, and grasping the products which, by right, ought to flow into the great Southern emporium.

Col. Tarpley then referred to the local advantages growing out of the establishment of rail-roads. He contended that no community could enjoy a great degree of prosperity by engaging simply in commercial transactions. To build up solid wealth we must have manufactures. These we could only have in connection with rail-roads, for if we remain isolated, we fail to give encouragement to the artisan to establish himself in our midst. A reference to the value of manufactures afforded the speaker an opportunity of noticing the shoe-trade of Massachusetts, the value of which was immense. Then, again, the article of furniture, of which we imported largely. The mahogany grown in Honduras was taken to the North, manufactured there and exported to this city. It was just as easy to get the raw material direct and manufacture it here; but why was it not done? Because we have not that redundancy of population essential to manufactures, and that redundancy will never be our lot until we construct rail-roads. Increase the facilities of communication, and you not only build up a new country, new farms and cities on the route of that communication, but you also invite emigration from all quarters. Such will be the happy results if we put our shoulders to the wheel, and enter heartily upon the important objects for which the Convention had assembled. Col. Tarpley dwelt at considerable length on this point, but our limited space prevents us from following him closely.

The speaker then alluded to the country through which the proposed railroad communication to the West was to go. At present it contained a sparse population, and the cultivation of the soil was scarcely diversified. Up to this moment, the only article produced was cotton, inasmuch as it admitted of comparatively easier transportation; but augment the facilities of getting there, and there is no staple product raised in the South and West that we cannot furnish. And look at the advantages that would result to New-Orleans from such a communication. Apart from the increased wealth that would flow into her coffers, the comforts and convenience of every inhabitant would be vastly increased. Our citizens would then be able to live economically and cheaply, and that fact, once known, would augment our population in an amazing degree.

Col. Tarpley referred to the mode in which taxation had been carried out in Mississippi for the construction of rail-roads. It was a system that must be introduced in Louisiana, for in carrying out the important projects we have at heart, it will not do to rely on individual aid and subscriptions only. When he saw around him the numerous evidences of wealth in New-Orleans, and knew that much of it was owned abroad, he felt the necessity of making these absentees contribute to the construction of rail-roads.

Col. Tarpley appealed to those whose pockets were not open to the call of patriotism, but could only be unlocked by motives of interest, to bear in mind that there was no project which promised a more profitable return than a rail-road from Nashville to this city. Admitting even that not a single additional bale of cotton was produced, and still the freight and commerce of the road must yield rich returns. But when we know that this supposition is not admissible; that the trade must increase immeasurably; that new farms and new plantations will be daily opened; that towns and villages will spring up in the wilderness; that, in a word, the desert will blossom like a rose; there are no means of estimating accurately the profits of such an undertaking. Why, the travel alone on the road would pay a large per centage on its cost.

Col. Tarpley spoke for an hour and a-half, and wound up with an eloquent appeal to the members of the Convention, and to the community, to come forward and support this great undertaking.

PROPOSED ROUTE FOR THE NEW-ORLEANS, OPELOUSAS, AND TEXAS RAIL-ROAD.

DONALDSONVILLE, *June* 26, 1851.

GLENDY BURKE, Esq., *Chairman Committee on Rail-roads, &c.*

SIR,—The enthusiasm that prevails at the present time on the subject of rail-roads in our state, and the favor with which was received a suggestion that I advanced to several influential gentlemen of New-Orleans, relative to a new line of direct communication by rail-road, between the city and the town of Washington in the parish of St. Landry, induce me to take the liberty of submitting a rough outline of the proposed route, through you, to the committee which, at the recent Convention, was appointed by the president "to prepare an address setting forth all facts and statistics they can gather on all rail-road projects, in which the state has a direct and immediate interest."

As it appeared to be generally conceded, prior to the assembling of our Convention, that the scheme of a rail-road communication between New-Orleans and Jackson via Baton Rouge, had good prospects of success, and that the line of its route would be along the eastern bank of the Mississippi, passing within a few miles of a point opposite the town of Donaldsonville, it occurred to me, sometime since, that a very advantageous modification might be made in the plan of communication by rail-road between New-Orleans and Washington advocated by Col. Payne, by means of which these two important public enterprises might be made to lend a helping hand to each other, and work in concert towards the grand result aimed at by the convention, as set forth in their resolutions—the equal and mutual advantage of city and country.

The proposition made by me, accordingly, was to effect a connection between the two contemplated lines through a branch to be constructed from the Jackson road to the Mississippi opposite Donaldsonville, and through a steam ferry capable of receiving the train of cars from the Washington road at that point. The latter road I suggested should run as follows: from the point on the Mississippi just designated opposite Donaldson, and on the west bank of the Lafourche down that bayou three miles, then leaving the bayou through the Grand Bayou Pierre part and Grand River settlements to Grand River, twenty-one miles. Grand River to be crossed by means of a bridge; thence, southwestwardly to Grand Lake, nine miles; across that body of water as across the Mississippi, by a steam ferry; thence to the Teche, three miles, and then following the route proposed by Col. Payne, up that stream through Franklin, New-Iberia, St. Martinsville, Vermil-

Donville and Opelousas to the terminus at Washington, seventy miles, a distance all told of 103 miles from the point of departure on the Mississippi.

In favor of the adoption of this line, over any other which has yet been proposed, and more especially over that proposed by Col. Payne, many considerations of great weight may be offered. As my design is only to bring the attention of the committee on the subject, I shall content myself on this occasion with the briefest statement of the most prominent among them.

1st. By the route suggested by me, a saving of seventy-eight miles of road would be effected.

2d. Several very expensive bridges would be dispensed with.

3d. No deep swamps or trembling prairies would be encountered.

4th. Upon the construction of only twenty-one miles of road a direct communication could, within a few months, be established between New-Orleans and the Attakapas parishes, rendering immediately available a largely productive revenue.

5th. There would be secured to the Washington road the strenuous support and co-operation of all capitalists already enlisted in building up the Jackson road.

But, however cogent and unanswerable may be these reasons, they will still be held secondary by the gentlemen of the committee who represent New-Orleans, to any additional consideration, which, in as far as they are concerned, must prove conclusive. The line now recommended, through its connection with the Jackson road, may be regarded as terminating substantially and in effect in the city, and its completion would, of necessity, go far towards enhancing the prosperity of New-Orleans; whilst it must be manifest that the inevitable result of the success of Col. Payne's scheme would be the founding at Algiers of a dangerous commercial rival. Col. Payne's project will not, therefore, I feel assured, receive any encouragement from the moneyed men of New-Orleans, and without their support the country is entirely incompetent to undertake it. The route that I suggest harmonizes all interests, and should meet with equal favor on all hands.

You will permit me a few additional remarks in explanation.

1st. By the adoption of the line proposed by me, a saving of seventy-eight miles in the length of the road; sixty-two miles east and sixteen miles west of the Mississippi—would be effected, as already stated. Now, accepting Col. Payne's data, you will perceive that by this means alone an economy of $780,000 is realized.

2d. But a further reduction of cost would be secured by the avoidance of the necessity of constructing two expensive bridges, which would have to be erected on Colonel Payne's route: one over the Lafourche, which would scarcely be built for less than $100,000, and another over the Bayou Bœuf which would call for the outlay of nearly $50,000.

3d. It should be borne in mind that it is precisely over that portion of this Algiers route, which lies between New-Orleans and the Teche, that the nature of the country presents the most formidable obstacles to a railway communication. I do not hesitate to assert, from my own personal knowledge, that the swamps of this region will present almost insurmountable difficulties to the passage of the road, in the direction indicated by Mr. Payne, and must increase far beyond the amount stated by him [$10,000] the average cost per mile.

It is susceptible of demonstration, that by adopting the line advocated by me, these several reductions in the cost of the road could be effected, amounting in the aggregate to near $1,000,000—a sum in itself more than sufficient to finish the other road its entire length. Are there any counterbalancing advantages attending the selection of the Algiers route, which should entitle it to the preference of the committee? I have been able to discover none which could stand the test of serious examination. It has indeed been argued and even assumed, that the support of the parishes of Lafourche Interior and Terrebonne would be gained to that project of communication, and a good deal of influence has been assigned to the assistance which they would furnish; but it seems to me clear that this has been done on premises unworthy of confidence. Lafourche Interior has an excellent channel of navigation open for the greater portion of the year, and at no time more than partially interrupted.

To imagine that for the exclusive advantage of a dozen planters who would reside on the line of the road as it traverses that parish, the remainder of the inhabitants could be induced to submit to the system of taxation upon which so much stress is laid by some enthusiasts, is perfectly visionary; nor is it any less visionary to imagine that any considerable amount of Lafourche sugar would ever take this road to market, inasmuch as at that season when our crops are shipped to the city, the Lafourche planters have for the larger portion of the time a cheaper, safer, and more convenient communication with New-Orleans than could be furnished them by artificial outlets. Terrebonne's geographical position is different, and the planters of that parish unquestionably rest under such inconveniences as might lead them to sustain Mr. Payne's projected road. But it should be recollected that they could be but partially benefited, unless, as suggested by a delegate from that parish to the Convention, a branch road were constructed along the Bayou Terrebonne to connect with the main trunk of road, which trunk must involve an expenditure of at least $200,000 to be added to the stupendous cost of the work, admitted by Col. Payne's report to reach already to $1,000,000.

4th. You will observe, that at a smaller cost than would be required for the erection of the two bridges already spoken of, over the Lafourche and the Bœuf, and other bridges required along the route—by the construction of twenty-one miles of road from the Mississippi to Grand River, there could be opened within a year, to the people of the Attakapas, a mode of cheap and easy communication with the city—which could not fail to bring in at once a handsome revenue, and at the same time, confidence in the practicability of the undertaking. If you will refer to Col. Payne's report, the committee will be competent to judge approximately of the amount of travel and freight available as a source of profit. On the other hand, the committee should not lose sight of the fact, that should the scheme of Col. Payne be adopted, it would be utterly impossible to derive the least benefit from the road until after its completion from Algiers to the Lafourche, a distance of sixty miles, which, as I have stated, could not be done at a smaller preliminary cost (not including the bridge) than $700,000.

In conclusion, an act of the legislature has authorized the incorporation of a company to run a rail-road from the Mississippi to Grand River, and the state has liberally donated such lands as it possessed along the route; the different property-holders through whose possessions the road would pass, have also volunteered the gratuitous cession of such lands as might be needed for the use of the road. An act has been signed for the formation of a company to build the road; but owing to the temporary excitement created in favor of Col. Payne's project, no steps have been recently taken to urge this scheme before the public.

But now that the question of opening a railway communication between New-Orleans and the western portion of Louisiana has been transferred from the decision of popular assemblies to the calmer and wiser judgment of a select committee of practical men, I have thought, as one of those who are interested in having the merits of the route via Donaldsonville fairly tested, that I would draw up for the use of the committee a brief and incomplete sketch as is herein presented to them, being fully prepared, however, when they may deem it advisable, to lay before them a more detailed statement of my views.

I am at this moment engaged in making a survey of the route adopted by the incorporated company referred to; plans of which survey, and of others representing the entire route as suggested, will be forwarded to the committee, should they feel disposed to inspect them.

I am, sir, with the highest respect,

Your obedient servant,

A. J. Powell.

LETTER FROM HON. EDW. BATES,

OF MISSOURI.

St. Louis, *December* 10, 1851.

My Dear Sir,—I received, in due course, your valued letter of the 11th ultimo; and, about the same time, a letter from the committee, of which you are a member, inviting me to attend the convention to be held in New-Orleans in January next. I have waited for sometime, to see if it were possible so to arrange my affairs as to be with you on that interesting occasion.

Pray present my thanks to the committee for their courtesy, and accept my grateful acknowledgments for the kind and complimentary terms in which you are pleased, in your letter, to urge my attendance. If my business would at all permit, I would accept the invitation with pleasure.

Within the last year, I have been invited to attend a number of meetings of the same character, in almost every part of this great valley; all of them having in view the improvement of the old means of transportation, and the making of new ones. It was not my good fortune to be able to attend any of them; but I rejoice that they were held. The fact suffices to prove that everywhere throughout the valley, the people are stirred up, properly informed of the great duty which a common interest imposes upon them, and conscious of their power to perform it. They will put forth well their individual energies to advance the noble enterprise, and will call upon the government to do its share of the duty, in a voice too loud to be unheard and too significant to go unheeded.

With a constant desire to see your great city, I have never seen it. The summer is not a favorable time to make the visit, and in the winter time I am always closely engaged in necessary labor. But, beyond all considerations of curiosity and personal gratification, I should rejoice in being able to attend the convention, especially with the privilege of participating in its deliberations. Its objects are, to my mind, of the utmost importance—not to the South and West only, but to the whole nation. It proposes to develop and put into useful action the boundless resources of the South and West; to stimulate enterprise and wealth to the establishment of all the arts and manufactures which our condition may require; and to make transportation rapid, safe and cheap, by rail-roads and improved navigation.

Rail-roads and uninterrupted steam navigation work a kind of social miracle upon a great country. When such a country is striped all over with such means of conveyance, it requires no great effort of imagination to conceive a continent roll up like a scroll, bringing its distant parts, for all commercial and social purposes, in close contact with each other, while its natural broad surface is kept spread out, only for the purposes of production and enjoyment.

If the people of the South and West will only set themselves to work in earnest in these noble enterprises—if they will improve the rivers, construct the roads, build up the manufactories, establish lines of commerce straight across the Atlantic, instead of sailing round to New-York and Boston only to pay toll—then we shall not only see the surface of our country enriched and advanced, but we shall breathe a purer moral and political atmosphere. Instead of angry bickerings and dangerous quarrels with our brethren of the North and East, about the blacks, to the total neglect of the true interests of the whites, we will strive with them in the more worthy and patriotic enterpises of peace and friendship; with that honest emulation which brothers may indulge in, we will run the race in the lawful road to wealth and honor.

No plan of improvement, no scheme for the creation of wealth and the advance of civilization, has been presented to my consideration for many years so altogether good, so unmixed with evil, as the system of great enterprises which I understand your proposed convention is expected to initiate. If you can only succeed now in enlisting the sympathies and securing the active co-operation of those who will be first, if not most, benefited by the undertaking, your final success will be put beyond a doubt; and its glorious realities will appear, to those who look but timidly into the distant future, as the wild visions of a feverish dream. But there is no fever nor dream. It is a matter of fact, which judgment can determine and figures can calculate. History will record the beginning, the progress of your plan; and when it is completed, a hundred millions of people will enjoy its fruits, and bless the wisdom and energy that began the work.

I believe it may be stated, as an axiom in political economy, that a given amount of labor will sustain the greatest amount of life, and purchase the greatest amount of comfort, when the producer and consumer are nearest to each other. And when, by artificial means, as rail-roads and improved navigation, the expense and time of transportation are greatly diminished, those causes produce the same effect as physical proximity. Then the producer and consumer are side by side.

The Mississippi is the great natural highway for the trade and business of the broad and diversified country which it drains. In magnitude and extent, in durability and practical value, it is far above all other highways, natural or possible. And, from this postulate, I infer that we who inhabit its valley, and are bound together by ties of interest too strong for us to sever, even if we were foolishly inclined to do so, are required, not less by the duties of patriotism than by the promptings of personal interest, to improve this great highway by all lawful means, and to the extent of its capabilities.

We of the whole valley may well say the Mississippi is our river, and New-Orleans is our store-house; and we will bestow upon them both whatever amount of labor and expense may be necessary to produce the greatest sum of good to the proprietors. But the Mississippi, with all its tributaries, great as it is, and however highly it may be improved, is not enough for the exigencies of our wide country and growing people. All the rich districts of the interior must be penetrated, and their productions brought into usefulness, not as heretofore, by wasting half their value in slow and costly transportation, but by means at once safe, cheap and rapid. Where a river is wanting we must make a railroad; and this, without any great stretch of liberal interpretation, is but an amendment to that magnificent system of internal navigation which nature has made for us in the Mississippi and its branches. Without the rail-roads the system will be incomplete; with them, this mighty valley will present one compact and indissoluble whole, each part of which will reciprocate benefits and blessings with all the rest.

The valley is, in fact, the body of the nation, and its people are emigrants from the older states, who are bound together, brethren of the Atlantic coast, by every tie of friendship and common interest. Be it our task to excite that body into healthful and harmonious action, and our happiness to witness, as the reward of our efforts, a national growth and development which will astonish the world.

My strong desire to see the unity and improvement of the valley, is no selfish or sectional wish. We could not, if we would, monopolize the results of our success. The whole nation must share in its benefits, and the farthest extremities will grow fat and strong with the activity and vigor of the body that nourishes them.

I remain, sir, with the greatest respect,

Your obedient servant,

EDW. BATES.

J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq., one of the Committee, &c.

ROUTE OF THE PACIFIC RAIL-ROAD.

JEFFERSON, (TEXAS,) *Dec.* 24, 1851.

To J. D. B. DE BOW, Esq., *Member of Covention Committee:*

DEAR SIR,—I send you this, thinking it may interest you, and if it reaches you in time, that it may be useful to you at the approaching Rail-road Convention. I traveled once from Vicksburg to Lake Providence, and to a place once called Russellville in Clairborne Parish, and in 1849 from this place by land to San Francisco, so that I am acquainted with nearly the whole of the land route from the Mississippi River to the Pacific. While in California, I conversed with gentlemen who had crossed the country on all known routes from the South Pass to Panama. From all these accounts, and those of Emory, Cooke, Fremont, &c., I am perfectly satisfied that the route I traveled is the smoothest, shortest, and best of all the routes known from the Mississippi River to the Pacific, except, of course, the isthmus routes. The present object is to point out this route, or rather the route for "the great Pacific Rail-road." In my opinion it should leave the river at or near Lake Providence, and proceed thence by the best route through the swamp to Monroe; thence to Red River, above the Raft; thence to Dallas by a straight course; thence to the Brazos, high enough up that river, (say at or near where the Shackleford trail crosses it) to "turn" the mountains that lie between the Colorado and Brazos; thence to the Pecos. Up to this point there would be no obstructions from mountains. The mountains put down on maps east of the Pecos (or Puerco) are imaginary, unless high up or low down. I am quite sure there are none between the 31st and 32d parallels of latitude. The advantage this route has over any other is, that it is straighter, the country is more level, and there are fewer streams to cross; that the Sabine is avoided entirely, and also the Neches; that the Trinity is smaller, and the point where the road would cross it, as well as the Brazos, is above the head of navigation. The Colorado is only a creek. The Pecos would be crossed on any of the proposed routes at nearly the same point. West of the Pecos to the Rio Grande, the country is a plain, interrupted by the Guadalupe chain of mountains and the Waco chain. Each of these may be crossed by passes not very difficult, which you can judge is the case when ox and mule teams, heavily laden, passed through with very little improvement on them. These passes are laid down on maps by —— Creuzbane, of the land office at Austin, from reports by Major Neighbors, and others. The Shackleford trail from Clarksville, in Red River county, falls into the routes he lays down, at the Pecos. From El Paso, the road would turn southward about thirty miles to "turn" a range of mountains, and thus obtain a nearly perfect level to Coratitis; thence to Janas; thence to Pimo village on the Rio Gila, or to some point below; thence down the Gila to the Colorado; thence to Carissa Creek. At this point the road would enter the California mountains; and by reference to Col. Emory's map, it is, at a place nearly due-east from San Diego. Perhaps the boundary surveys may bring to our knowledge some route more direct than that of Emory, which was the same that I traveled in 1849. To Emory's Report I refer you as the probable difficulties of surmounting these mountains, and these are common to all the routes yet proposed. There may be another way which has not yet been explored:—it is to cross the Colorado and proceed to Walker's Pass, as laid down in Col. Fremont's Report; thence down the San Joaquin to Stockton; or by crossing the coast range, the road would reach San Francisco by the valleys of the San Joaquim, Rio Salinas, (wrongly called "Beneventura" on most maps,) and San Jose. But there is much doubt about the practicability of reaching Walker's Pass from the mouth of the Gila, or any other way higher up, i. e., farther north. But to return.

From El Paso to the Cordilleras of California at Carissa Creek, the way is mostly a dead level. There would be two ridges of mountains to cross. The Guadalupe Pass, described by Col. Cooke, is by far the worse of these two. There are several other ridges of mountains to cross, but the passes are so good naturally, that the grading would be trifling. On the lower part of the Gila the road would have to be built on the sides of the mountains to avoid overflows. The valley of the Colorado would have to be passed in the same way as the Mississippi swamp, to avoid overflow. The distance from Lake Providence by this route is 1,750 or 1,800 miles. A very large part of it is a dead level, and only that part between Carissa Creek and San Diego is mountainous, with about five miles at the Guadalupe mountain east of El Paso, and two or three at the Waco mountain—about three miles at the "South Pass," (the passage way across the ridge east of the "Guadalupe Pass,") which latter is eighteen or twenty miles. The next most difficult place is in Louisiana. In my opinion, it will cost more from Lake Providence to cross Red River, than from that point to El Paso, for the grading. I feel no doubt but that thorough surveys will prove the above to be the shortest, levelest, cheapest and most practicable route for a rail-road from the Mississippi River. There is as much, if not more timber on it than any other; and there are immense beds of coal on the Sulphur fork, near which it would pass.

But it will be objected, that that part of the above route is within the territory of Mexico. This is true; but it will be recollected that the United States have bound themselves by treaty to prevent depredations on the Mexican territory. Now, what I contend for is, that the only way practicable for them to do this is to build this very road. If the

United States do not prevent these depredations, they will have to pay the damages. If they attempt to do it by military posts immediately on the National line, the rugged character of the country, and the great expense of hauling supplies, would render it a most extravagant affair. But the United States could doubtless secure the right of way, or buy the territory down to a certain degree of latitude, say the thirty-first. There are many extremely fertile tracts of country along the line indicated for the road, and these would sell, when the building of the road became a certainty, for more than enough to reimburse the whole expense. I cannot now go into particulars, but can do so, as I have a journal of my whole route. In the Texas section, nearly or quite all the land from El Paso to the country a short distance west of Dallas, is yet vacant, and no doubt the state would make very liberal grants. And in Louisiana, there is yet much vacant land which might be obtained. A great part of the distance in Texas is equal to any land in the world, and abounds in building stone of the best description. And the whole road would run through a country better by far than that on any other route.

If the United States do not build the road, let them get the land necessary from Mexico, and doubtless a company would be formed which would build it, and in a space of time after it was once commenced, much shorter than many now imagine. I will say nothing of advantages to the United States, and particularly to the South, this road would produce. I will only observe, that this road would do more to maintain the relative importance of the South, to prevent encroachments on her rights, and to preserve the "Union," than all the compromises and "Union" philanderings that ever were uttered. To maintain herself, the South must *do* as well as *talk;* and never was there a more pressing necessity for it than now. If this road were built, a trade would pass over it that no one dreams of. It would create a trade along its own course that would pay well for its construction. Then the United States would save immense sums in transportation of arms, troops, and supplies to California, Oregon, Utah, New-Mexico, &c. They would save much in the transportation of the mail, which would be greatly expedited. It would lay open the trade of all the west coast of America—the East Indies, China, probably Japan, &c., the amount of which is incalculable. And it would bring us into communication with an exceedingly valuable mining country, namely, that of the Cordilleras Mountains. Another word: By the termination being at Lake Providence, I think New-Orleans and the other towns on the Mississippi would be more benefited than if it were at Vicksburg, Natchez, or any other point where roads would connect with it from the East. Owing to the immense and deep swamp on the east side of the Mississippi at Lake Providence, this could not be done, or if possible, only at an immense cost.

In haste, yours, &c.,

F. C. BAKER.

MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENT.

1.—CUBA STATISTICS.

THE following statistics are taken in part from a pamphlet entitled "Cuba in 1851," and said to be officially correct, and in part from other reliable sources.

Cuba was discovered by Christopher Columbus, on the 27th of October, 1492. It is situated between 23 degrees 12 minutes, and 19 degrees 43 minutes, north latitude. It is about 800 miles long, and in width varies from 25 to 130 miles. According to Humboldt, it contains an area of 43,380 square miles; by others, it is estimated as low as 32,807. Its extent of territory, according to the statistics of 1850, comprises 24,148,509 acres, of which, about one-twelfth is under cultivation. Its soil is one of the most fertile in the world, favorable to the growth of all tropical fruits and productions. The cultivation of sugar cane was introduced about 1580, and slaves began to be imported four years afterwards. Havana, its most important city, was founded in 1519, and now contains about 200,000 inhabitants, a number just equal to the total Indian population of the whole island when discovered.

The trade of Cuba was very insignificant when the United States declared their independence, and was confined to Santiago de Cuba on the south side of the island. Since then, its advancement in population and commerce has been remarkable, far surpassing the growth of any other Spanish colony.

Its population at several periods, commencing with 1775, has been as follows:

1775	170,000
1791	272,000
1817	598,000
1827	730,000
1841	1,007,624
1850	1,247,230

Increase in 75 years, 1,077,230.

Its increase in imports, exports and revenues, has been no less remarkable, as will be seen by a glance at the subjoined table:

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Revenues.
1828	$19,534,922	$13,414,362	$9,086,406
1847	32,389,117	27,998,770	12,808,713
Increase	$12,854,197	$14,584,408	$3,722,307

In 19 years. It will be remarked here, that the principal seat of trade is now on the northern part of the island next to the United States, and not on the southern side as in 1775. So that its growth in both trade and population seems to be identified in a great measure with the development and progress of our government. The value of its agricultural productions in 1849 was $62,781,035. Its exports during the same period were $27,380,921, of which $8,706,224 were to the United States. Its imports during the same period were $26,707,343, of which $7,280,214 were from the United States. The amount of American tonnage employed in the trade of the island, during the same period, was 501,267 tons.

The entries of vessels from the United States, Spain, England and France, amounted in 1847 to 3,493, of which 2,012 were to the United States. Clearances during the same year, 3,043, of which 1,722 were to the United States; thus showing the vast preponderance of trade with this country over any other.

The total amount of taxes levied upon American commerce with the island, in the shape of duties upon imports, tonnage duties, and duties upon exports, exceeds $4,000,000 annually. There are 359 miles of railway in operation upon the island. Of the $27,000,000 of annual imports, according to official documents, $16,000,000 are in provisions, lumber, fabrics, materials, &c., which our country could furnish more readily than any other; but, through the taxes and restrictions imposed by Spanish policy, not more than one-third of it comes from the fields and factories of the United States.

Cuba is divided into three departments—Western, Eastern and Central. These departments are subdivided into twenty-five jurisdictions. The jurisdiction of Havana is the largest, the Western department, and it contains one city, 60 small towns, 35 villages, 437 sugar estates, 520 coffee plantations, and is inhabited by 454,000 persons. Havana, the principal city of the island, and the capital, as a commercial city, compared with places in the Western world, ranks next to New-York and New-Orleans. The value of the exports and imports together, exceed fifty millions of dollars per annum. In 1847, about 644,853 boxes of sugar were exported from this port, and 82,000 quintals of coffee, 32,000 hogsheads of molasses, 198,267,000 segars, and 25,000 quintals of tobacco.

The following is the classification of the population of Cuba in 1850:

Creole whites		520,000	
Spaniards		35,000	
Troops and mariners,		23,000	
Foreigners		10,560	
Floating population		17,000	605,560
Free mulattoes	118,200		
Free blacks	87,370	205,870	
Slave mulattoes	11,100		
Slave blacks	425,000	436,100	641,670
Total			1,247,230

Whole number capable of bearing arms, including whites, Spaniards, slaves, &c., 393,000.

In 1850, the number of sugar estates on the island amounted to 1442; coffee estates to 1618; tobacco plantations to 9101, and 9930 grazing farms, and 223 towns. Wax is produced to the amount of about 800,000 pounds, and honey to the amount of 2,000,000 gallons. Cattle to the number of about 900,000 head are owned in the island, and there are about 200,000 horses and 50,000 mules.

In minerals, the island is very rich; of copper mines, no less than 114 have been discovered in the island, 57 in the Eastern department, 18 in the Central, and 45 in the Western. The mine at Cobre, worked by an English company, has shipped from 27,000 to 43,000 tons per annum. Coal, iron, silver, and amianthus have been discovered.

In 1847, the government revenues amounted to $12,808,713.

2.—PROGRESS OF STEAM NAVIGATION.

"NOW AND THEN."

The New-York *Times* gives an interesting relic of the "good old days" of slow and sure traveling, in the shape of an advertisement which appeared in a New-York paper of the date of October 5, 1807, and which illustrates most strikingly the progress of enterprise and improvement:

"The Steamboat being thoroughly repaired and arranged for passengers, with a private dressing-room for ladies, it is intended to run her as a packet between New-York and Albany, for the remainder of the season. She will leave New-York exactly at 9 o'clock in the morning of the following days, and always perform her voyage in from 30 to 36 hours:

Monday	Sept. 28	Monday	Oct. 12
Friday	Oct. 2	Friday	Oct. 16
Wednesday	Oct. 7		

The charge to each passenger is as follows:

To Newburgh	$3	14 hours.
To Poughkeepsie	4	17 hours.
To Esopus	4½	20 hours.
To Hudson	5	30 hours.
To Albany	7	36 hours.

"For places, apply to Mr. Vandervoort, No. 48 Cortland-street, at the corner of Greenwich-street."

One month previous to the date of that advertisement, Fulton's boat first undertook the arduous task of statedly running on the North River, for the transmission of passengers. The journey to Albany, a distance of 160 miles from New-York, was then accomplished in the steamboat in 36 hours; it is now run by boats in short of seven hours. At the time when Fulton started his enterprise, 36 years ago, no other steamboat floated on the waters of the world; the mind is overwhelmed with wonder at the change that has been effected in this short period, by the genius and enterprise of man.

The success of the scheme was then very much of a problem; many were scouting the affair altogether, while there were others who had faith in the invention, and predicted its ultimate success.

The following communication in the *Evening Post*, Oct. 4, 1807, was doubtless regarded ast he emanation of a crack-brained enthusiast:

"Among thousands who viewed the scene, permit a spectator to express his gratification at the sight this morning of the steamboat proceeding on her trip to Albany, on a wind and swell of tide which appeared to bid defiance to every attempt to perform the voyage. The steamboat appeared to glide as easy and rapidly as though it were calm, and the machinery was not in the least impeded by the waves of the Hudson, the wheels moving with their usual velocity and effect.

"The experiment of this day removes every doubt hitherto entertained of the practicability of the steamboat being able to work in rough weather. Without being over sanguine, we may safely assert, that the principles of this important discovery will be applied to the improvement of packets and passage boats, which for certainty, safety, expedition and accommodation, will far surpass anything hitherto attempted. The invention is highly honorable to Mr. Fulton, and reflects infinite credit on the genius of our country.

NEW-YORK."

Commenting on the boldness of this confident correspondent, the *Times* says: "Time has justified the vision of this seer, and gone infinitely further than the promise. Could the veil of the "to come" have been lifted before the eyes of the prophet, and the log-book of the *Baltic*, or the time-table of a railway train been presented to him, how inconceivable must have been his astonishment! How short the time it takes now-a-days to work wonders!"

The trip from New-York to Albany is now performed on the Hudson Rail-road in four hours.

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

ROBERT F. W. ALLSTON, OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 17.

This gentleman, who is one of the most practical and well-informed rice planters of South Carolina, and one of the highest-toned and most enterprising citizens, eminently deserves a place in our gallery of useful men.

The first acquaintance we had the honor of forming personally with Colonel Allston, though we had been familiar with his reputation from early life, was at Memphis, in 1849, where we served together as delegates to the great Rail-road Convention, in which he represented his native state, and presided as one of the Vice-Presidents. He is, perhaps, as widely known among the planters of the South, as any gentleman engaged in the pursuits of agriculture, for his very able, thorough, and altogether invaluable Memoir upon the Rice Plant, which appeared in the pages of the Review in 1846, and was quoted, read, and admired in every quarter of the country. Such an essential act of service to the agriculture of the South, cannot be spoken of in terms as high as it deserves. Its influence has been widely and beneficially felt; and we wish that among our intelligent and educated planters the example were oftener followed, of diffusing the lights of experience and study, as was done in this instance in regard to one of our most important crops.

Col. Allston was born in April, 1801, on the place where he now resides, near Georgetown, S. C., and still cultivates the paternal acres, which have, under his administration, been doubled in value. He is descended from Benjamin Allston, jr., and more remotely from William Allston, of the War of Independence, and William Allston, sen., who was a planter on the Great Pee-Dee.

Col. Allston was graduated in 1821, at West Point Military Institute, having pursued a course of diligent study in that institution for four years, maintaining for himself a fair standing and position. In relation to this portion of his life, he conceives that much of his success as a planter has grown out of the principles of science then acquired. "The knowledge acquired at West Point of chemistry, electricity, mechanics, and engineering, although far short of what it ought to have been, had I duly improved my opportunities, has been of daily and extensive service to me in my vocation. After the training of a judicious mother, I owe my success in life to the discipline of mind and body, the justness of thinking, the decision and promptness of execution, which I either acquired or improved during my four years' course at this time-honored institution."

Having received a commission in the 3d artillery, Colonel Allston served a short time in the army, being attached to Col. Carey's Brigade of Topographical Engineers, at that time engaged in the coast survey. From this service he was forced to return to the aid of a widowed mother, oppressed with the cares incident to an embarrassed estate, and a long minority of her three sons.

Colonel Allston was elected Surveyor-General of the State of South Carolina, in 1822–3, and served in that capacity for four years. In 1828, he was chosen to the State Legislature, serving also for four years, and voting with Harper, Preston, &c., for convoking the people in convention, in order to pronounce upon the unconstitutionality of the protective tariff. From the House he was transposed to the Senate, in 1832, and has continued to be a member of that body down to the present time; having been elected two years ago to preside over its deliberations. As a legislator, he has ever been known as a business man, seldom speaking to any question, and then only a few words. His efforts have been largely devoted to the cause of public education in the state; and a bill reported by him, providing for the appointment of a State Superintendent of Free Schools, in two instances received the vote of the Senate, but failed in the other House. Eventually, (in 1849,) it was passed in a shape which authorized the governor to appoint such an officer for one year, to collect educational statistics, &c.

It may be observed, in this connection, that the cause of popular education, strange as it may seem, is not one in South Carolina, which politicians, ambitious of distinction, are willing to take up. They shrink from the responsibility of proposing the taxation which it necessarily involves, forgetting that the highest duty of the statesman is to instruct and direct the public mind in all great and salutary measures. The whole free school fund of the state is only $37,000, whilst double that sum would scarcely be adequate. In his admirable and elaborate report upon the subject, Colonel Allston recommended this increase, and that the parishes and districts assess upon the inhabitants and property-holders a tax for school purposes, equal in amount to the proportion of the fund received by them from the public treasury. In a limited degree this measure has been carried out in Charleston; but only, it is believed, for the purpose of building school-houses. Though, in proof of a better sentiment abroad, it may be observed, that the gentlemen lately acting as chairmen of the Committee on Education, who originated and presented favorably the resolution relating to Free Schools, which passed both houses in the year 1849, were promoted the following year to the Chairs of President and Speaker of their respective houses.

Col. Allston has served for about twelve years in the militia of South Carolina, in both the line and staff of the fourth division. In 1842, he respectfully, but peremptorily, refused to allow his name to be used in connection with the office of Governor, giving offence by his course to many personal and political friends, which was remembered afterwards. As all the facts in the case are perfectly familiar in South Carolina, it is unnecessary for us to recapitulate them, or to do more than to express the conviction that he acted throughout from high and conscientious motives.

The sessions of the Legislature being over, (they are very short in that state,) Col. Allston retires to his residence on the Pee Dee, in the winter, and on the shore of the Atlantic in the summer, devoting himself to his private and trust affairs,* and to the requirements of elegant and social life. He is a very active and useful member of the Winyoh and All-Saints' Agricultural Society, and the State Agricultural Society, now unfortunately meeting no more. He is also member and President of the *Winyoh Indico-Society*, which dispenses charitable education upon an income of $12,000, and which was chartered nearly one hundred years ago.

In 1832, Col. Allston married the daughter of William Petigru, of Abbeville, S. C., whose maternal ancestor, Pierre Gilbert, was one of the Huguenot founders of New Bordeaux. Blessed with the refined enjoyments of a happy home, with interesting and promising children clustering around his heart, he is content to see divided among others, who shall be more worthy of them, the honors of public life. Beyond the share which has already been accorded to him, and the meed of public confidence which has attended them, he does not, we believe, cherish one single aspiration.

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* As Fiduciary Agent, he has settled up and closed four estates, and still has four others under his administration, besides several minor trusts; which, with his own affairs, it may well be imagined, leave but little of his time unoccupied.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—RAIL-ROAD MATTERS.

We have on hand quite an accumulation of papers and documents, upon the subject of Southern and Western Rail-roads, which it has been impossible for us to touch, believing that it was due to the whole country that the matters of the late great Rail-road Convention in New-Orleans should be first attended to. Having finished with these, we shall be able next month to run over a good deal of new ground. Meanwhile, we express indebtedness to our friend in Henderson, Rusk Co., Texas, for his paper, which we shall hereafter incorporate; and to another friend in Little Rock, who signs himself "Boston Mountain," and who shall have equal consideration.

2.—STATE FINANCES OF LOUISIANA.

On the 31st December, 1851, there remained in the Treasury the sum of $308,886 37, resulting from various funds, as follows: General Fund, $76,568 03; Mill Tax Fund, $154,671 54; Poll Tax Fund, $19,919 68; Internal Improvement Fund, $51,132 20; Road and Levee Fund, $6,594 92. Total, $308,886 37.

The total receipts for 1850 were, $1,008,175 91, and for 1851, $836,247 44. The total expenditures for 1850 were, $951,545, and for 1851, $852,787 53. The balance of over $300,000 remaining in the Treasury, arises from the fact, that when Judge McWhorter was elected in 1850, he found the sum of $268,795 56 to the credit of the department. During the last two years the disbursements in the agregate have been exceeded by the receipts, so that the balance existing in 1850 has been augmented some forty thousand dollars.

LIABILITIES OF STATE (1ST JAN., 1850) OF LOUISIANA.

Bonds to Union Bank...........	$2,668,000
" " Consolidated Bank,...	1,376,000
" " Citizens Bank,.......	6,468,000
For Interest on do.,............	577,888
Second Muncipality, N. O.,.....	399,364
Third "	30,240
	$11,519,492

Statements showing the amount of the Annual Receipts and Expenditures, for the years 1830 to 1852, in Louisiana.

Year.	Receipts.	Expenditures.
1830.......	$507,291 71......	$340,056 38
1831.......	503,168 67......	364,848 40
1832.......	467,353 66......	372,343 38
1833.......	482,377 99......	394,659 30
1834.......	582,254 82......	500,867 15
1835.......	456,099 34......	396,394 70
1836.......	564,825 36......	501,530 37
1837.......	852,316 75......	358,984 91
1838.......	1,047,802 44......	986,032 32
1839.......	899,604 20......	814,121 63
1840.......	778,224 24......	642,000 02
1841.......	758,599 83......	700,822 78
1842.......	588,716 65......	501,591 23
1843.......	648,599 64......	560,961 54
1844.......	972,177 61......	616,684 98
1845.......	3,662,889 72......	3,510,818 39
1846.......	1,245,715 94......	995,813 98
1847.......	1,418,856 63......	675,082 96
1848.......	1,351,265 17......	872,702 50
1849.......	628,965 91......	329,758 99
1850.......	1,016,040 56......	990,859 39
1851.......	1,161,673 91......	852,787 54

3.—LOUISIANA PENITENTIARY.

Number confined 1st Oct., 1839, 194; received since, to 31st Dec., 1850, 169—363. Of this number eight have died, nine been pardoned, ninety-seven discharged. Of those in prison, there are two white females, and twelve colored females. The whole number of colored, 74. Convicts received during 1851, 151; present number in Penitentiary, 298, of which 78 are colored. The following shows the profits of the Penitentiary for 1851, $4,000 of which goes to the state:

Statement of the Profits and Expenditures in the Louisiana Penitentiary, for the year ending the 31st December, 1851.

Profits arising from the Bagging and Rope Factory,..........	$6,825 11
Cotton and Wool,.............	31,996 00
Foundry and Finishing Shop...	8,917 60
Shoemakers'...................	404 36
Brick Yard,....................	6,194 64
Merchandise Account..........	3,631 12
	$57,968 83
Expenditures same time.......	$45,329 16
Profits......................	$12,639 67

4.—MISSISSIPPI PENITENTIARY.

The machinery now in operation is capable of producing $45,000 worth of manufactured articles per annum, and it is expected that the establishment will eventually pay from fifteen to twenty thousand dollars into the treasury. 4,000 yards of Osnaburgs, 1,000 yards of linseys, and 1,000 lbs. of yarn, are produced per week. The present number of convicts is 78, only nine of whom are natives of Mississippi.

5.—MISSISSIPPI STATE EXPENSES, &c.

The receipts into the Treasury, from the 1st day of January, 1851, to the 11th day of December, 1851, inclusive, were two hundred and twenty-one thousand two hundred dollars and twenty-one cents. The particulars are as follows, viz.:

State Tax for 1850	$184,646 14
" 1849	387 35
" 1848	5 79
" 1847	660 17
Sinking Fund	9,206 16
Chickasaw School Fund	2,641 84
Executive Contingent Fund	604 43
Redemption of Lands	5,796 63
Appropriations	400 00
Two per cent. Fund	2,800 00
Penitentiary	8,000 00
Internal Improvement Fund	6,051 70
Total Receipts to 11th Dec., 1851	$221,200 21

The whole amount of Disbursements for the same time was $223,637 15. Among the items we note:

Lunatic Asylum	$45,000
Legislative Dept.,	1,872
Judiciary "	74,489
Executive "	8,972
Penitentiary	22,433
Institution for Blind	2,500
University of Miss.,	5,384
State Convention	8,397
Vaccine Agency	400

6.—THE FISK LIBRARY, NEW-ORLEANS.

Now that the city is consolidated, we have some hopes of seeing carried out the project we some time ago submitted, of incorporating the Fisk Library within the University, and thus making it of public advantage, rather than as at present, a ridiculous libel upon the name. This measure could have been effected several years ago, but for the unreasonable opposition of a few parties. It is well known that the brother and legatee of Mr. Fisk is greatly in favor of it, which should of itself be a strong recommendation. In this manner $10,000 can be procured for the increase of a library, which already contains five or six thousand volumes. Mr. French, who was the original owner of the library, and through whose influence, to some extent, Mr. Fisk was induced to make a donation of it to the city, remains one of its staunch friends and advocates, and has lately forwarded to the mayor a gratuitous offering of about 140 valuable volumes, contributions from himself and friends. It should shame us to see the efforts now being made in New-York to carry out the liberal bequest of Mr. Astor for a great public library, and then reflect upon our own apathy and indifference.

7.—THE SUGAR INTERESTS.

Some say there is nothing new under the sun—perhaps there is not; but we do not happen to know all, consequently what is old is sometimes new to us. A gentleman has this year planted cane upon a principle which I think is new to the most of us. I will try to give it, together with some remarks. It is this: the canes are cut in pieces of four or five joints, each joint having a good eye. It is then planted in hills, or, to make it more intelligible, the furrow is plowed twice, so as to make it one foot wide. On each side is laid a piece of this cut cane, say nine inches apart, and directly in a line opposite each other, but longitudinally with the furrow. At a space of two feet, or two feet six inches, other two pieces are planted, and so on, throughout the soil. The crop is covered and worked in the ordinary manner. It is expected that a heavier stand and much finer canes will be the result, and consequently more sugar, with far less seed-cane. There is no reason to doubt that it will succor well; and the plan really carries out the sun and air system to perfection. I am of opinion, had about four ounces of lime, or what is better, bone powder, been worked into each hill, or even if it be applied in April, the result would be surprising. Let me explain what I mean. Bone dust is a four year's manure. It is the food and stimulative of the sugar cane, and I am certain that a crop of canes can be dressed with bone dust, so as to cause it to be as forward, and as near maturity in September, as one cultivated without it would be in November. This latter is of vital importance to Louisiana, as the cane crop is a forced crop. It is an artificial one—not a natural one.

W. F. W.

8.—GRAPE CULTURE IN LOUISIANA.

St. Mary's Parish, Franklin, La.,
March 3d, 1852.

MY DEAR SIR:

The culture of the grape is a subject to which much attention has been devoted, and it is generally supposed that the present state of our knowledge in regard to the manner of preparing the ground for the reception of the root is almost perfect. Now, strange as it may seem, it is yet true, that the very first step taken, for the purpose of planting the vine, is incorrect, and in nine cases out of ten, from this first false step result the failures in fruit.

The first injunction given always is, dig a pit some two or three feet deep in the ground; now, this is the first error, and from it come all other imperfections. Far from digging a pit, we should find the highest and driest spot of earth we can, and on it raise a mound. The manner of raising a proper elevation for the vine, I accomplish in the following manner. I inclose about eight feet square in a wall formed of turf or sod raised two feet and a-half high; each layer of sod, as it is superimposed, leaving an abutment of the turf below, of about two inches; the wall, when finished, forming a consecutive series of steps from bottom to top. This pen is filled with bats, gravel, bones, rubbish, &c., &c., and in the middle of it is planted the vine. The rest of the culture is to be carried on according to the most approved style of taste or fancy of the owner. What I wish to direct the attention of the vine-grower to is the fact, that no pit should be dug, as it will form a reservoir for water, and tend to increase the only real impediment to the culture of the grape with us, namely, the wetness of our soil. The same facts are applicable to the culture of the peach, which thrives well here until the trees become large enough for their roots to touch the wet subsoil. This culture would be too expensive to compete with soils naturally cultivated for the peach, but still would be very valuable for those too far removed from such soils to obtain a fruit so liable to speedy decay; and a few trees thus arranged would produce a quantity inconceivably large, and more than sufficient for any family's use.

JAMES SMITH.

9.—IMPROVED FURNACES FOR SUGAR PLANTERS.

Important inventions are often of very simple construction, as for instance, the Safety Lamp of Davy, and the Mariner's Compass. The machine must be adapted to the laws of nature, and it is necessary that the inventor should first understand these laws. We cannot create, but only discover and use principles. The prejudices and ignorance of mechanics and engineers, often interfere with important improvements. The man who can work an engine is not necessarily an engineer. To be this, he must have studied, 1, the combustion of fuel in order to obtain the greatest amount of *heat*—2, the application of heat, in order to secure the greatest amount of *evaporation*—3, the laws of steam in order to obtain the greatest amount of *power*.

The object of these remarks is simply introductory to the notice of a very simple and useful improvement, invented by Mr. F. Armstrong, of New-Orleans, upon the ordinary grate bars in use upon plantations, for which he has received a patent. The claims of the inventor are, that his grate-bars have "jogs" upon their sides, so situated as will allow a poker to pass over them, in order to remove any obstacle which may be in the way of admitting the air to furnish the oxygen. The "jogs" answer the purpose of holding the bars securely in their position, so that the openings are secured uniformly on the whole area of the great surface. In this arrangement regularity as regards distance is preserved, and the solid products of combustion can be removed to keep up a free circulation of air to the fuel.

The inventor has received authority from an intelligent planter to make use of a letter received from him upon the merits of the improved bars, and we take the liberty of copying it. What is said of the importance of using coal on the plantations is worthy of attention, and has been frequently pressed by us.

Esperance Plantation, St. John the Bapt.,
March 8th, 1852.

MR. FRANCIS ARMSTRONG:

DEAR SIR,—It gives me much satisfaction to reply to your letter of the 2d inst., in regard to your grate-bars which you set under my kettles and boilers the past season, and to express my sincere opinion that they are much superior to any others which I have used, (and I have various kinds,) particularly for sugar kettles. With them I was enabled to get my crop off with very bad coal, which I am sure I never could have done without them—for the year before I fairly gave up the same coal and finished my crop with wood. To the planter who uses coal in the boiling of cane juice, they are absolutely necessary; and to this fuel many must resort in a few years. They will then find, like many others when driven to change in any thing, that coal can be used successfully, and economically, much more so than wood, unless the wood is on high land and within a reasonable distance from the sugar house. They will in a few years have an experience sufficient to remove difficulties which now exist in the application of the fire to the kettles, the form of the kettles of the canal, and indeed of the whole arrangement, which will as certainly yield to time and labor as other difficulties far greater have done in this as well as in other branches of industry.

At the close of another year I may be able to show some of the results of coal in this respect, which, owing to a bad article used last year, I am not now prepared for. In evidence of my undiminished confidence, I inform you that I shall put up another set of kettles, and shall order a boat of Pittsburg coal—of the superiority of which over other coal I need not speak, as it is too well known to all those who have used it to require any puff from me.

Congratulating you upon having received your letters patent for your improved grate-bar,

I remain, very respectfully yours,
J. H. Loughborough.

A few principles and facts applicable to the laws of heat and combustion, as they are explained by writers, will not be out of place here.

To appreciate fully the value of this useful and novel mechanical arrangement when applied to furnaces for evaporating cane juice, or generating steam for propelling vessels, it will not be amiss to make a few prefatory observations on the philosophy of combustion, a subject upon which no little error prevails, notwithstanding its importance in this age of progress in the useful arts.

Combustion is known to be the chemical combination of a *supporter of combustion* with a *combustible body* evolving *heat and light.*

The combustible body in ordinary furnaces is wood or coal, while the supporter is the oxygen contained in the air, without the presence of which no combustion or burning can take place. It is well settled by all writers on combustion, that the *heat evolved* is in direct proportion to the quantity of oxygen which enters into the combination.

As to the evolution of the *light*, many theories have been advanced from time to time, but the problem has not been satisfactorily solved. The views of Professor Thompson, however, are not unworthy of interest. He holds that the *light* we observe in combustion is a constituent of the combustible body and not of the supporter, for the reason that different combustibles in burning give out different colors, whereas the oxygen, or supporter, is always identically the same. He says, the oxygen has two component parts, the *base* and the *caloric*, or heat, and the combustible has also two component parts, the *base* and the *light*. During the combustion, the base of the oxygen unites with the base of the combustible, forming a product, while at the same time the caloric of the oxygen combines with the *light* of the combustible, and the compound forms *flame.*

The quantity of air required to furnish sufficient oxygen to support the combustion of fuel in furnaces, is far greater than supposed by those who are not conversant with this subject. The oxygen contained in the air is only about one-fifth part, so that it requires five times the quantity of air to furnish this oxygen, which is itself in bulk —— times greater than that of the ordinary fuel consumed.

This immense consumption of air is exemplified in the blacksmith's forge, where the bellows have to be distended many times in order to supply the very small amount of coal with air sufficient to furnish oxygen proper for combustion, and thus obtain the desired heat.

The importance of supplying the furnace with as much oxygen as necessary to produce effective combustion, is exhibited in a simple manner in the common lamp, by extending the wick too high, for it will be then seen that the lamp burns badly, the imperfect combustion being caused by the want of sufficient oxygen to consume the increased quantity of oil raised in the extended wick by capillary attraction.

It is all-important that the fuel be supplied with the requisite quantity of air. Any deficiency or interruption of this *supporter* will necessarily cause imperfect combustion, and consequently a corresponding loss of heat.

Nature has kindly furnished us with the means of accomplishing great results if we only apply them by proper and suitable mechanical structures. The principles or laws of nature have always been the same; they are not new; it is for human genius to discover and develop, not create them. It is the *new* application of an existing principle, not the novelty of the principle itself, which inventors claim. This distinction is not always regarded, and no merit is awarded to the poor inventor unless his improvement has produced an entirely new principle.

10.—ASTRONOMICAL PAPERS.

We are indebted to our esteemed friend and early preceptor, Professor Lewis R. Gibbs, of the college of Charleston, for a series of articles, contributed by him to the papers of that city, upon many interesting questions of astronomy, in which he is probably as much a proficient as almost any gentleman in the country. We would republish one or two of the series did space admit; but will, at all events, clip out a table, furnished by him, of the asteriods: those modest little orbs, which ever and anon bless the eyes of astronomers with new discovery, and are increasing in number so fast that it is almost impossible to keep up the reckoning of them. We have added to the list the latest discovered.

The following table gives their names in order of discovery, date of discovery, name and residence of discoverer, and their mean distances from the sun.

Names.	Date.	Discoverer	Place.	M.dis
Ceres	'01, Jan 1	Piazzi	Palermo	2766
Pallas	'02, Mar 28	Olbers	Bremen	2772
Juno	'04, Sep 1	Harding	Lilienthal	2671
Vesta	'07, Mar 29	Olbers	Bremen	2361
Astræa	'45, Dec 8	Hencke	Driessen	2576
Hebe	'47, July 1	Honcke	Driessen	2420
Iris	'47, Aug 13	Hind	London	2385
Flora	'47, Oct 18	Hind	London	2202
Metis	'48, Apr 25	Graham	Markree	2386
Hygeia	'49, Apr 12	Gasparis	Naples	3122
Parthenope	'50, May 11	Gasparis	Naples	2440
Clio	'50, Sep 13	Hind	London	2330
Egeria	'50, Nov 2	Gasparis	Naples	——
Irene	'51, May 20	Hind	London	——
Eunomia	'31, Jul 29	Gasparis	Naples	——

11.—HISTORICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

B. F. French, Esq., a gentleman well known to the citizens of New-Orleans for his liberal literary spirit and zest in the collection of antique documents, illustrating the early history of Louisiana, has published another interesting volume, which constitutes the third in his series of *Louisiana Historical Collections*. We are indebted to him for a copy, and give, for the information of our readers, its table of contents:

Memoir of Judge Bullard, Pres. Hist. Soc.
Translation of La Harpe's Journal, with notes on the chief personages alluded to.
Translation of Charter to Crozat and Western Company.
Account of the Indian Tribes of Louisiana.
Early Military Fortifications.
Translation of the Black Code.
Translation of Charlevoix, with notes.
Account of the Arkansas, Cherokee, Natchez, &c. Indians.
Massacre of the French by the Natchez.
Early Inhabitants of New-Orleans.
Settlement of the Huguenots in New France.
Journal of Sauvole, first Governor of Louisiana.
Richebourg's Memoir on the Natchez War.

We have previously referred in our pages to the first and second series of papers by Mr. French, and regret to have to add, that his literary and patriotic labors in the matter, though appreciated by scholars all over the nation, have not been rewarded in our own state with any proper encouragement. Very few, if any, members even of the Historical Society, purchased the second volume, though it was published with direct reference to them, and contained a list of their names, etc. Surely the citizens of Louisiana will not suffer a gentleman thus to tax his own private resources in a matter which is of such wide and deep public concern.

In a few months, Mr. French will publish the *fourth* series of papers, which will include the precious, and but lately brought to light, papers of Marquette, *the discoverer of the Mississippi;* and which have never before appeared in print. Among them is the chart of the Mississippi, made in 1673—a copy of which we have received, and would gladly incorporate did space admit. We can only now extract from the letter of Mr. French, in which he informs us of his intentions, and express the hope that every Louisianian will encourage, by his purse, the worthy undertaking of rescuing the buried and almost lost memorials of our past history. The legislature of the state should even make a handsome appropriation in aid. Mr. French intimates that he may appropriate the proceeds of the fourth vol-came to the erection of a monument to Marquette and Jolliet.

Dear Sir: Your esteemed favor reached me yesterday. At the same moment, I received a package from Canada, containing the original papers and *veritable* journal of Father Marquette, the discoverer of the mighty Mississippi.

I cannot describe to you the thrill of delight that ran through me as I fingered the pages of these mysterious papers—the greatest literary discovery of the age.

I had to drop your kind letter. I could not think of anything but the *old* papers, and the old stained *map* drawn by Marquette, which accompanied them.

I opened it—I turned it over and over—I held it up to the light of the sun, so that it should shine upon it once more. I examined critically the countless stains upon it. I looked at it again and again to see if I could discover the blood of Indian scalps, or of the good missionaries, staining its surface. I thought I could see where the hand of the good father had rested on it, as he traced the course of the river, from degree to degree, and where he marked the Indian villages.

I fancied I could see the stopping-places where he bivouacked at night, (under a cloud of mosquitoes, no doubt,) on the banks of that stream, which nowhere bears his name, but of which he was the first daring explorer.

I followed him in his bark canoes until he reached the mouth of the Arkansas, when he landed amidst the savage shouts, and the military display of a long rank and file of savage chieftains, escorting him and his companions, with their rude music, to their village. I then traced him back to the snows of Canada; and to the shores of that lake, where he finally yielded up his pious spirit into the hands of his Creator, while invoking his holy name.

> "In the darkling wood,
> Amidst the cool and silence, he knelt,
> And offered to the Mightiest, solemn thanks
> And supplications."

I inclose you *fac similes* of the identical map and papers, (the map is a sketch by me *in part* only,) so that you may assert the truth of the discovery without fear of contradiction.

You will observe that Marquette has named the Mississippi the river *de la Conception,* which is something new, and affords us the strongest proof of the genuineness of the map. *But why did he thus name it?* Because it was the holy day (le jour de l'immacullee Conception du la vierge), on which he sat out to peril his life, and his companions, in this great discovery. But we must not lose sight of M. Jolliet, his brave and intelligent companion in this exploration, who is entitled to divide the honor with him. I am truly yours,

Benj. F. French.

J. D. B. De Bow, Esq.

12—BUREAU OF STATISTICS OF LOUISIANA.

Although this office, for some time held by the Editor of the Review, has at his suggestion been abolished by the Legislature, the full report which was promised will still appear, it is hoped, sometime during next summer or fall. Communications addressed to the Bureau previously to that time, will be gladly received, and their contents incorporated, with the proper acknowledgments.

It will be remembered that a certain committee of the House of Representatives thought proper to censure the office for not having accomplished its mission; but as this committee prepared immediately after a supplementary report, correcting the errors into which in a great many particulars they had fallen, and making the amende to the Bureau for the most flagrant injustice done to it, no public notice was taken of the matter. Citizens of Louisiana will not deny us the credit of having faithfully served the *industrial* interest of the state, and it would be very hard for any man or committee to affect this position.

Though the office has been abolished, it will be only until a better plan can be submitted for carrying out the purposes designed, and in which Louisiana has taken the lead of most of the other states. Such a plan will in due time be submitted.

13.—FREE BANKING.

An able paper upon this subject, by a merchant of New-Orleans, is, we regret to state, unavoidably left out of this number, though we made every effort to insert it. Next month it will appear. Several other papers on different subjects are also omitted for the same reason.

14.—THE FUTURE OF NEW-ORLEANS.

Everything may now be said to be bright. All the great measures of reform which have been recommended have been carried out. We have a new government, which embraces all of the municipalities and Lafayette into *one compact and powerful whole,* capable of meeting the exigencies of the times, and advancing us to that state which God and nature intended, and which man only could have prevented. We have removed the tax upon capital, and in the restoration of the Citizens Bank given the proper relief to the mercantile interests. The power is given to the people to tax themselves for rail-road purposes, and what is higher than all and above all, there is to be a new constitution of the state, which shall untie the hands of the people and leave them to work out their own salvation. Who shall say that the Fates are not propitious?

14.—IMPORTANT TO SUBSCRIBERS.

NOTICE.—Subscribers who are not binding their sets, and who will send us any of the numbers from January to July, 1847, or February, 1848, or August, 1849, will have their accounts credited with the same at 50 cents each on a new year. We want these very badly for completing sets, and will also exchange 1852 for the numbers of 1846. *Send by mail.* In exchange for January, February, May or June, 1851, any future numbers will be given.

We will supply all other numbers except those indicated on moderate terms, to those who may desire to complete their sets; or if they send the sets to us we will have them bound handsomely at actual cost. This course is recommended to subscribers.

We have still a very few sets, for which orders are solicited—old series 11 vols.; new series 4 vols—neatly bound. Acceptances on factors in southern cities, payable in the fall, received as cash.

A special circular will be sent to all subscribers who are in arrears, and they are earnestly requested to remit by first mail. If any have not received their numbers regularly, only give us notice, and we will supply the deficient ones. No one need complain on this score. A note through the post-office will always rectify any mistakes, even though they are in most instances chargeable to irregularities of the mail.

15.—OUR ADVERTISEMENTS.

In addition to the articles mentioned in the card of Messrs. Guinness & Hill, in our advertising columns, we would mention the following, which, through the courtesy of these gentlemen, we were permitted fully to inspect in their magnificent establishment upon Camp-street. It is a perfect crystal palace in its way:

Piano Fortes, Guns, Paintings, Tables, Liquor Cases, Baskets, Elegant Chairs, Papier Mache Goods.

Watches, Diamonds, Jewelry, Gold Pens, Pistols, Cutlery, Desks, Dressing-cases, Jewel, Odeur, Liqueur and Glove Cases, Sportsman's Goods, Stationery, Porcelain and Plated Goods, Opera Glasses, Fans, Music Boxes, Accordeons, Canes, Umbrellas, Mathematical Instruments, Microscopes, Cigar and Card Cases, Porte Monnaies.

Papier Mache Tables, Desks, Work-boxes, Cabinets, &c.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

J. C. MORGAN's Literary Depot, Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office, New-Orleans.

The Latest Publications Received.

Lectures on the History of France. By Sir James Stephen. 1 vol. 8vo.

Wesley and Methodism. By Isaac Taylor. 1 vol. 12mo.

Practical Treatise on Use of the Microscope. 1 vol. 8vo.

Illustrated Manual of the Operative Surgery and Surgical Anatomy.

Calhoun's Works—A Disquisition on Government and a Discourse on the Constitution of the United States. By John C. Calhoun. Vol. 1.

Sorcery and Magic. By Thomas Wright.

Layard's Nineveh, cheap edition. 1 vol. 12mo.

Sweet on Diseases of the Chest. 1 vol. 8vo.

Characters in the Gospels, Illustrating phases of character at the present day. By Rev. E. H. Chapin. 1 vol. 12mo.

The New French Manual—intended as a guide to the Tourist, and a class-book for the Student. By Surenne.

Home and Social Philosophy. By Charles Dickens.

Norton's Literary Almanac for 1852.

The Corner Stone. By Jacob Abbott, forming vol. 2 of Abbott's Young Christian Series.

Whimsicalities. By Thomas Hood. 1 vol. 12mo.

Quakerism, or the Story of my Life. By a Lady who for forty years was a member of the Society of Friends.

Templeton's Engineers', Millwrights' and Mechanics' Pocket Companion. By Julius W. Adams, Engineer.

Clover Nook; or Recollections of our Neighborhood in the West. By Alice Carey.

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine and Engineers' Journal for 1851. Bound in 1 vol.

Treatises on Architecture, Building, Masonry, Joinery, and Carpentry. By Wm. Hosking.

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Yankee Yarns and Yankee Letters. By Judge Halliburton.

Kenneth, a Romance of the Highlands. By G. W. M. Reynolds. Complete in 2 vols.

Harper's Magazine for March and April.

International	do.	do.
Eclectic	do.	do.
Knickerbocker	do.	do.
Hunt's Merchants	do.	do.
Blackwood's	do.	Feb. and March
Graham's	do.	March and April.
Sartain's	do.	do.
Godey's Lady's Book		do.

Appleton's Mechanics Magazine for March.

London Lancet	do.
London Art Journal	do.

Silliman's Journal of Science and Art for March.

London Quarterly, North British, Westminster and Edinburg Reviews.

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ART. I.—SHEEP HUSBANDRY IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

The celebrated, but eccentric John Randolph, "of Roanoke," whose eccentricity often got the better of his reason and logic, and led him into vehement and bitter denunciation of even the most grave and important measures, had, for some reason not very satisfactory, contracted a most bitter antipathy to sheep and the raising of wool. He even went so far once, on the floor of Congress, as to declare that he would go any time out of his way "to kick a sheep!" John Randolph, however, was but a man; and time has shown that all his prejudices against attempts at sheep husbandry, in the South, and particularly in his own state, Virginia, were groundless—founded in a want of knowledge of the capabilities of the South for this very important branch of rural economy.

Others, though not as renowned, but perhaps more free from prejudices, have also made the most sweeping denunciations of wool-growing in southern latitudes; and, undoubtedly, this opposition has contributed greatly to retard the progress of sheep husbandry in the South, by engendering in the minds of agriculturists deep prejudices against it, or, at least, doubts of its practicability and profit. These doubts, however, have been gradually disappearing, and for many years past there has not been a single southern state in which wool was not more or less raised. We have not the last census to quote, but that of 1840 will answer our purpose. According to that census, the quantity of wool raised in the states south of the Ohio and Potomac, and west of the Mississippi, was as follows:

Virginia	1,293,772	sheep	2,538,374	pounds	of wool.
North Carolina	538,279	"	625,044	"	"
South Carolina	232,981	"	299,170	"	"
Georgia	267,107	"	371,303	"	"
Florida	7,198	"	7,235	"	"
Alabama	163,243	"	220.353	"	"
Mississippi	128,367	"	175,196	"	"
Louisiana	98,072	"	49,283	"	"
Tennessee	741,593	"	1,060,332	"	"
Kentucky	1,008,240	"	1,786,847	"	"
Total	4,478,852		7,133,187		

Since 1840, sheep raising has made great progress in the South, and there is an increasing attention given to it. In many of the states, and particularly in Texas, since its admission into the Union, this is true. Many persons of capital, and of experience in sheep raising, have not only devoted much time, in Texas, by rearing the ordinary breeds of that state, but they have expended large sums in importing the finest breeds from the North. There is now* in New-Orleans, on board of a vessel just arrived from New-York, twenty-four full-blooded sheep, of the best Merino, on their way to Corpus Christi, to which place they are imported from Vermont, for the improvement of the Texas and Mexican breeds. The lot consists of eighteen bucks and six ewes, covered with magnificent fleeces of silky fineness. They cost about $8 per head in Vermont.

Of sheep in Texas, we can speak from personal observation. There is no country in the world where they thrive better, or with so little cost and trouble.

The progress of sheep husbandry in the South is not as rapid as it might, and undoubtedly would be, if more exact information on its great practicability and advantages was diffused among our agricultural population. There is much inquiry on the subject. Many old prejudices still linger, and such questions as the following are frequently asked:

1. What is the effect of climate on the health and wool-producing qualities of sheep in the South?
2. Is the soil, herbage, &c., of the southern states adapted to sheep husbandry?
3. What are the profits on sheep husbandry in the southern states?
4. Is there a constant market for wool, and what are the future prospects of it, as to demand and supply?
5. What are the most profitable breeds of sheep for the South?
6. How ought sheep to be managed in the South?

These questions we propose to answer as fully as our space will admit, for the benefit of such readers of the Review as take interest in the subject.

I. In regard to the effect of a southern climate on sheep, we will discuss this under two heads: the effect upon the health of sheep, as mere animals; and the effect on the quantity and quality of the wool.

That our southern climate is unfavorable to the health of sheep, is disproved by the experience of many years. All who will take the trouble to look into the history of sheep, in the old world, will see that it is an animal that has, from time immemorial, been bred on the eastern continent, from the equator to the snows of Scandinavia—from the burning plains of Asia and Africa to at least the 65th parallel of north latitude. The power which the sheep possesses of accommodating itself to different climates seems almost unlimited. It seems to thrive equally well on the hot plains of Hindostan, or in the frozen regions of Thibet. We have observed it extensively in New-York, Massachusetts, and other states, and in the high, undulating regions of Texas; and in both regions it thrives equally well; if anything, better in the South than in the North. There are now not far from 100,000 sheep in Louisiana. South of the 32d parallel of latitude, it is estimated that there are, in the southern states, between two and three hundred thousand sheep at the present time, and the number is constantly increasing. By the table which we have given above, it will be seen that there were, in 1839, more than 4,400,000 sheep in the southern states. The fact that the animal is rapidly increasing in numbers in the South shows that the warmth of the climate is not unfavorable. We may regard it as a settled fact, that the climate of the South is highly favorable to the health of sheep. The animal thrives in even the most unhealthy localities of the South —along the low, fenny, tide-water region that skirts the Gulf of Mexico, on the margins of Great Okefinokee swamp, in Georgia and Florida, and in the swamps of the Mississippi. In the parish of Orleans there are some 2,000 sheep; in Jefferson, about 7,000; St. Mary's, 8,000. In all parts of the Delta they are found in large numbers; and that they are healthy in all this region is a matter of notoriety.

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* March 13, 1852.

Let us now consider whether the quantity of wool, which a sheep produces, is less in the South than in the North. The following table will answer this query; it is compiled from the U. S. census for 1840:

	Av. weight.		Av. weight.
Wool, per sheep, in Virginia........	17¼ ozs.	Wool, per sheep, in Mississippi....	23¼ ozs.
" " " N. Carolina....	16 "	" " " Louisiana......	17¼ "
" " " S. Carolina....	19 "	" " " Tennessee......	18¾ "
" " " Georgia........	19¼ "	" " " Kentucky......	23¾ "
" " " Florida.........	17¾ "	" " " New-York.....	21 "
" " " Alabama......	17 "		

From this it would appear that the quantity of wool, per sheep, in the South, is greater than in the North. It must not be concealed, however, that the U. S. census for 1840 is far from being reliable; but as its defects affect the North as well as the South, it is as fair for the one as for the other. For all purposes, however, requiring exactness, it might as well not have been taken. We could easily verify this observation, but it would be a digression from our subject. It is a pity, that men, well paid by the government for making census returns, cannot do their work correctly.

In comparing wool-growing in the South with that of the North, we are to bear in mind, that in the South the business thus far has received but comparatively little systematic attention; while in the North wool-growing is as old as the republic itself, and has long since been reduced to a system, conducted upon the most scientific and expensive plans. Every attention there has been paid to the breeding of sheep, and importations of the best stock have, from time to time, been made from Europe; while in the South sheep have received little attention, being suffered to breed promiscuously, and to roam through the forests without being regularly sheared.

"From all well-known facts," says Mr. Henry S. Randall, of New-York, a distinguished writer on sheep husbandry, "warmth of temperature, at least to a point equaling the highest mean temperature in the United States, is not injurious, but absolutely conducive to the production of wool. The causes of this are involved in no mystery. Warm climates afford more green and succulent herbage during a greater portion of the year than cold ones. Sheep, plentifully supplied with green herbage, keep in higher condition than when confined to that which is dry. High condition promotes those secretions which form the wool. Every one at all conversant with sheep well knows, that if kept fleshy the year round, they produce far more wool than if kept poor. A half a pound's difference per head is readily made in this way. Within the maximum and minimum of the product of the sheep or of a flock, the ratio of production always coincides with that of condition."*

Having thus shown the effect of climate upon the *quantity* of wool, we now proceed to consider its effect upon the *quality*.

There can be little doubt that the hair and fur of animals is finer in cold climates than in warm. The cause of this is, perhaps, not fully determined. Some writers attribute it to the effect of cold and heat in contracting or expanding the pores of the skin, supposing the size of the hair to be proportioned to the size of the pores. The pores, in cold climates they say, being greatly contracted by the cold, suffer only fine hairs to pass, the reverse being the case in warm climates. This is a theory which needs confirmation. Indeed, it would seem to be refuted by the fact, that many quadrupeds, especially those of cold climates, have two kinds of hair growing together, a long, coarse kind, forming their visible external covering; and a shorter, finer, and more abundant kind, lying concealed by the other, and close to the skin, called *fur*. If the cold has anything to do directly with the growth of the hair, why does it cause some to be fine and the rest coarse, on the same animal?

The chief difference between animals of hot and cold climates is, in respect to hair, that the latter have two kinds of natural covering, a coarse and a fine; while the animals of hot climates have only the coarse, the fine being unnecessary. The sheep of Bengal are coarse and hairy: but these have been found, on being transported to Port Jackson, in Australia, in the latitude of South Carolina, to lose all their hair, in the short time of three years, and to assume a fleece of wool.

Australia, too, furnishes evidence of the perfect adaptation of warm climates to the growth of wool. The exportation of wool from Australia, in 1843, amounted to 16,226,400 lbs.

That the quantity and quality of the wool is dependent, in a great measure, on the kind and amount of the food received by the animal, is attested by all of the most able writers on the subject. Mr.

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* Randall's Sheep Husbandry in the South, p. 22.

Youatt, an eminent writer on sheep, says: that "pasture has a far greater influence on the fineness of the fleece" than climate. It is admitted, too, that a change of climate, from a cold to a hot region, does not necessarily produce coarse wool; but that such deterioration may be counteracted by careful management and selection in breeding. Long experience in all climes has established this. "The preservation of the Merino race," says M. Lasteyrie, "in its utmost purity at the Cape of Good Hope, in the marshes of Holland, and under the rigorous climate of Sweden, furnish an additional support to my unalterable principle, that fine wool sheep may be kept wherever intelligent breeders exist."

We might cite many eminent authorities to prove that wool may be grown in all its purity and fineness in warm climates. The wool of Australia, in latitude 33°, is pronounced superior in softness and fineness to the wool of Germany, in latitude 50° north. Mr. Mark R. Cockrill, a large sheep raiser in Madison county, Mississippi, who imported Saxon sheep in 1824, says: "I find no falling off in quality and quantity of their fleeces; on the contrary, I believe there is a little improvement. Their fleeces are a little more compact than formerly, hence more weight; and from our mild climate, the staple has become longer. I assert it to be a fact, that the latitude I am now in, Madison county, Mississippi, latitude 32° north, is better than any country north of it to grow wool, as the sheep can keep all the time grazing by sowing small grain. The wool of the fine Saxon sheep in this climate is softer and more cotton-like than any I have ever seen. The superiority of my wool I ascribe to our climate, and the provision for the sheep of succulent food the year round."

The authorities cited above prove the great point in question, namely, that southern latitudes are not incompatible with the growth of the best of wools; and that, in some respects, they have the advantage of cold latitudes, in furnishing flocks constantly with green pastures, and in there being none of the winter expenses of northern countries to defray.

II. *Is the soil, herbage, &c., of the southern states adapted to sheep husbandry?*

But little need be said on this question. All who are acquainted with the South know that even on our poorest lands there is ample food, or there can easily be made to be ample food, for vast flocks of sheep. Undoubtedly the poorest worn-out lands of the South could be made to furnish sufficient grass for sheep, and thus be rendered highly valuable. A moderate capital would stock them with the best breeds from the North, which, with proper attention, would yield annually a certain and unfailing crop of wool—a crop that would be exempt from the uncertainties of that of cotton. Lands now abandoned, or those of the low tide-water region covered with pines, could be made vastly productive and profitable in wool. They could be made to yield sufficient grass to feed thousands of sheep, that, with but little care to their owners, would yield their valuable fleeces. Nearly all of those lands in the South, now regarded as nearly worthless, could be made to produce wool, at very little expense.

All of the most sterile lands of the South could be made to yield an abundance of the Bermuda grass, thus converting all abandoned fields into permanent pastures, that would support thousands of sheep, requiring but little attention, save the shearing of them. There is, therefore, no obstacle to the raising of sheep, in the South, arising from a want of suitable food. The whole tide-water zone of the South, extending from twenty to one hundred miles from the sea-coast, could be easily converted into a sheep-growing region.

III. *What are the profits on sheep husbandry in the southern states?*

In many, if not in most situations throughout the South, sheep will obtain sufficient food from the pastures, during the whole year, so that they are at no expense to the owner during winter for food or shelter. The items of expense, then, in the raising of sheep, would be, interest on the purchase money of lands and sheep to begin with, the expense of shearing and supervision, and the loss of sheep by death. On the other side of the account, we should have the value of the wool and the increase of the flock. Lands fit for sheep raising can be purchased at $1 25 per acre, and ordinary sheep are worth $2 per head. Wool is worth at present from 30 to 35 cents per pound. During the last 15 years the price has ranged between 30 and 50 cents. It is allowed that there may be three sheep to every acre of land. The increase of a flock is about 80 per cent, and lambs are worth 60 cents each. In the south the expense of supervision need not be anything, as old superannuated negroes could watch sheep. The shearing would cost not over $2 per hundred, if done by slaves.

From these data we construct the following statement:—

Dr.		*Cr.*	
100 Sheep, interest at 8 per cent. on the purchase money, at $2 per head..........................	$16 00	By 300 lbs. of wool at 30 cents...	$90 00
Interest on 33⅓ acres of land, at $1 25	3 33	Increase of 80 lambs, at 60 cents.	48 00
Expense of shearing............	2 00	Total......................	$138 00
Loss by death, 2 per cent........	4 00		25 33
Total....................	$25 33	Gain....................	$112 67

The above rates are put much lower than those given by others. It is estimated that the entire cost of raising a pound of wool, in the South, is not over $5\frac{1}{12}$ cents, but the market price of wool is not less than 30 cents. A very safe estimate of the cost of raising one pound is eight cents, as given by Henry S. Randall, Esq., in his very complete work on sheep husbandry in the South. It will be readily seen by the above that the profits of wool growing are infinitely greater than those of cotton, even at the present prices.

The expense of keeping sheep in the South is very little. The Hon. Mr. Coles, a member of Congress from Virginia, states, that his flock of 200 sheep, kept in good condition summer and winter, did not cost him $10 a year. Their wool, at 3 pounds per head, would be 600 lbs. worth at 30 cents, $180. In the official documents of the

U. S. Patent Office, for 1849, it is stated that the annual expense of keeping sheep in Texas does not exceed 25 cents per head.

The South is at present the only country in the Union where wool-growing can be made profitable. In the above-mentioned report of the patent office it is stated, that the keeping of sheep in New-York costs from $1 to $1 25 per head; in Ohio, $1 to $1 37; in New-Hampshire, $1; Vermont, $1; in Pennsylvania, $1. The keeping of 200 sheep, then, in Ohio, for instance, would cost $200 per annum; but these 200 sheep would only produce 600 lbs. of wool, which, at 30 cents, would be only $180. In the statement which we have given above, it will be seen, that in the South there would be a clear gain of $112 67 on 100 sheep, or $225 34 on 200. The great advantage which we derive from our southern climate will soon make ours the great wool-growing region, as it is now the great cotton and sugar-growing.

The gross cost of producing a pound of wool in the southern states, at the highest estimate we have seen, is eight cents; in New-York it is 27¼ cents. This great difference is owing to the greater cheapness of our lands, and of slave labor, and to the climate, which here enables the flocks to live in the fields the whole year, without any expense for food or shelter.

Thus far we have considered only the direct annual profit or loss of sheep husbandry in the South. Let us now look at some of the more remote, collateral, but equally certain advantages which the South would derive from this branch of husbandry.

It is well known that there are thousands and tens of thousands of acres of land in the tide-water and hilly regions of the southern states that have either become "worn out" by long cultivation, or are naturally too sterile for tillage. Can these "old fields," these deserted plantations, these sterile wastes, be reclaimed or made arable? Thousands are constantly deserting their old homes, their places of nativity, the fields upon which their eyes first rested, and which their hands first tilled, because they say that their lands are worn out, and they can live upon them no longer. Is there no remedy for this? Yes; the introduction of sheep husbandry. These worn-out lands yield enough to sustain large flocks of sheep, at least three to the acre. Upon 1,000 acres of these old lands 3,000 sheep can find subsistence; and while they do this, they are at the same time fertilizing them. How is this? The manure of the large flocks that might be placed upon them gradually enriches them, and thus increases their herbage. Thus, in a few years, poor and scanty pastures are converted into rich productive ones. The sowing of the fields with the Bermuda grass, too, which will flourish on almost perfectly barren soils, should commence with the introduction of the sheep, and one would help the other. The grass would be returned to the soil in the form of manure, and in a few years the old, worn-out, deserted fields, would be fit for the plow. "The Bermuda grass," says Mr. Affleck, "grows luxuriantly in every kind of soil. It possesses an additional advantage—that of binding the loosest and most barren sandy tracts." It spreads rapidly, is hard to eradicate, and is, besides, a favorite grass with animals.

It may be asked, why are sheep better for ameliorating worn-out lands than horned cattle? The answer is, because sheep will thrive on lands where other animals could not—where other animals could not get enough to eat. English agriculturists consider that the sheep on their lands are the chief support to their fertility—that they keep the fields fertile. They regard the *fleece* as the smallest part of the good to be derived from them. A writer in a London agricultural journal observes: "The *very fleece* shorn annually from their backs is worthy of consideration." Here, in America, the "very fleece" is everything.

The point to which we wish to call the attention of all engaged in agriculture in the South, is, that they should immediately stock all their old worn-out fields, if any such they have, with sheep. They will thus render those fields, in a few years, fit for the plow, and in the meantime be deriving a handsome profit from their flocks.

It being now shown that the South is the best country in the world for raising sheep, and that the profits of sheep husbandry are great, we shall proceed to consider

IV. *Whether there is a constant market for wool, and what are the future prospects of it as to demand and supply?*

Should the South go as extensively into the business of wool raising as is recommended, the quantity of wool produced annually in the United States would be enormously increased; and the question naturally arises: Would there be a market for all this wool? If only one-eighth part of the lands of the South was devoted to sheep, at the rate of two to the acre, and each furnished 3 lbs. a year, the South would annually produce more than 54,000,000 lbs. of wool, which, at 30 cents, would be worth $16,200,000. If the present supply of wool, taking the whole world into account, is adequate to the demand, it is evident that an increase of wool-growing in the South, unless it is diminished to the same extent in some other quarter, would soon create an overstocked market. We do not at all admit that the present supply of wool is equal to the demand. One thing is certain; the entire wool crop of the United States is nothing like sufficient to supply the demand in the United States alone. In 1850 we imported 18,000,000 lbs., worth, at 30 cents, $5,400,000. We exported, during the same year, wool to the amount of $22,778.

For several years past, the raising of wool in the Northern states has been diminishing, and at the same time the business has been increasing in the South. Northern wool-growers ascribe this phenomenon to the operation of the tariff of 1846; but the real cause is due to the facts which we have already pointed out, showing that the South is better adapted to wool raising than the North, in many parts of which, the expense of keeping ordinary sheep is more than the value of their wool. It is only the very best breeds, producing the finest wool, that can pay a profit in the North. A late writer on the subject states, that wools that do not bring less than 45 or 50 cents per pound, are the only ones that the North can raise with profit. In the South, as we have shown, a large profit can be made on even ordinary sheep, and that, too, with no trouble except the watching and shearing.

As sheep husbandry advances in the South, it will disappear in the North, so that we need not apprehend the want of a market for Southern wool. The South is destined to monopolize the business entirely in North America, and we can now raise it here at less expense than in any country in Europe. It will not be long before wool raising will be abandoned in this country, north of the 40th parallel of north latitude, if we except, perhaps, Oregon, where the isothermal line is at least 5° north of its course east of the Rocky Mountains.

Much has been said in favor of the prairies of the Northwest, as affording great facilities for sheep raising; but the experiment has been tried, and failed. These prairies are bleak, cold, barren wastes in winter, that afford no food for animals—and hence, sheep need as much housing and feeding there as east of the Alleghanies; besides, prairie lands devoted to sheep would need fencing, but they are destitute of timber, and there is also a great scarcity of water.

The wool-producing countries of the globe that are able to come at all in competition with us, are embraced chiefly in a belt or region about 15° in width, on each side of, and at different distances from, the equator. The position of this zone is governed by the temperature. The wool zone, if we may so call it, is bounded by isothermal instead of latitudinal lines. In the southern hemisphere, South America, Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope, are the only countries that might compete with us. In South America, the wool-growing region embraces about two-thirds of Buenos Ayres, all of Chili, the little country of Uruguay, which is about two-thirds the size of Texas, a mere point of Brazil, and the north part of Patagonia. The *pampas* of Buenos Ayres, like the prairies of North America, are covered with tall grass, and are destitute of timber. They present the same objections to sheep-raising as our prairies. The cost of transporting the wool to market is great, for there is none but a foreign market; and besides, the tariff of 1846 levies a duty of 30 per cent. *ad valorem*, without regard to quality; so that the lowest priced foreign wools cannot enter this country without paying a duty of about four cents on a pound, which is half what it costs to raise a pound in our southern states. Lands, it is true, are worth, in the Argentine Republic, only about ten cents an acre; but the instability of the government is a powerful discouragement to all branches of industry; the agricultural population is wanting in industry and skill; and foreign capitalists do not like to venture. The wools of Buenos Ayres cost there about 15 cents per pound, to which we must add commissions, United States duty, freight and insurance, which make the very coarse South American article cost here not far from 30 cents, at which price we can furnish wools of the same inferior quality, at a high profit. So that we have nothing to fear from South America. Let us now look at transatlantic competition.

England, Ireland and Scotland had, in 1839, 32,000,000 of sheep. England and Wales, with an area less than that of Virginia, had about 7,000,000 more sheep than the whole of the United States. But the whole, or nearly the whole of the wool of Great Britain is consumed at home. It exports only its coarsest wools, and this because others are foolish enough to buy what English manufacturers think unfit for their use. England does not produce wool enough for its own manufacturers. In 1840 it imported 46,224,781 pounds. Much of the cheap, coarse, cast-off wools of England have been shipped to this country, and are included in the 18,000,000 pounds that we imported in 1850. As England has to import vast quantities of wool for her own consumption, we need not fear her competition.

Spain, and the whole of the Peninsula, once so famous for its wools, is now sunk to a fifth or sixth rate wool-producing country. Both in Spain and Portugal wool-growing has rapidly declined ever since 1810, and is still declining. Portugal then yielded more than 3,000,000 lbs. annually; now only about 350,000 lbs. Spain, in 1810, yielded nearly 6,000,000 lbs.; now only about 1,000,000 lbs. annually. Germany and Prussia have reached their climax, as wool-growing countries, and for the last 20 years have been declining.

France finds it better economy to cultivate grain, vines, fruits and silk, than wool in those of her departments adapted to sheep husbandry; and since 1825, her exports of wool to England have declined from 436,000 to 48,000 lbs.

Of Italy, we may say, that there is not the remotest prospect of her ever becoming a wool-growing and exporting country.

Turkey, though tolerably well adapted to sheep husbandry, exports but little wool. The proud, indolent Turk spurns all rural labor, is destitute of enterprise, and, moreover, his government affords him no encouragement. Destitute of any security to person or property, which is liable to be seized at any time, or which he is often compelled to sell at forced sales to meet oppressive taxation, the Turk has little inducement to increase his flocks.

Of the Cape of Good Hope, as a wool-growing country, nothing very favorable can be said. Nearly seven-tenths of the colonial territories are destitute of vegetation during a greater part of the year, according to Mr. Barrow. If we may believe the accounts of the Rev. Robert Moffat, who resided at the Cape 23 years, as agent of the London Missionary Society, the greater part of the country is doomed to perpetual sterility and drouth. Besides, lions, tigers, hyenas, jackals, wild dogs, &c., are so numerous and ravenous that sheep must be incessantly watched. But the worst of all, the sheep destroyers are the natives themselves, whose ravages are incessant. At the present time, especially, in the war which they are now carrying on with the English, their ravages of sheep, and cattle of all kinds, are very extensive. But, even if the English should succeed in effectually subduing the natives, the character of the country must ever render it unfit for wool-growing. Extreme drouth, says Mr. Moffat, continues for years together.

Of all the wool-growing countries of the Eastern hemisphere, south of the equator, Australia ranks first. It has an area about equal to that of the United States, but greatly inferior to it in fertility of soil. "The truth is," says Mr. McCulloch, "that the bad land bears a much greater proportion to the good, in New-Holland, than in almost any other country with which we are acquainted." The country is peculiarly subject to drouths, which continue two, three, and four years together, destroying all vegetation. The drouth in 1841 destroyed 70,000 sheep.

It is difficult to find a place in Australia where sheep do well. Disease there, among sheep, too, appears to be peculiarly inveterate, causing frightful losses. The astringency of the water and other causes, produce severe epidemics. In some years they carry off half the flocks, in some regions. The shepherds being *convicts*, have often, through spite to their masters, caused whole flocks to be infested with the *scab*, by driving them into contact with diseased flocks. The chief source of the wealth of Australia is thus in the hands of these worthless convicts.

The sheep of Australia are subject to the depredations of various animals, particularly the wild dog; but the *runaway convicts*, with whom the country is filled, are a worse enemy than the dogs. They live upon the flocks. Sheep there have to be folded every night, and guarded by watchmen and dogs, with fires, to keep off wild beasts. Mr. Samuel Lawrence says, in one of his letters to Mr. Randall: "I saw a gentleman from England, a few months since, who has an admirable flock in New South Wales, of 25,000 sheep; and he assured me that he had not received a penny of income from them since 1838."*

With such a picture before us of wool-growing in Australia, and the fact that it is 13,000 miles from any market for wool, we have not much to fear from Australia.

From a consideration of all the foregoing facts, Mr. H. S. Randall, in his work on Sheep Husbandry, draws the following conclusions:

1. "That wool-growing is never likely to permanently and importantly increase in any of the countries of Europe, unless it be in Hungary, Turkey, and the south of Russia.

2. "That it is more likely to decrease than increase in Great Britain, France, Portugal, and Italy.

3. "That such a decrease is next to certain in Spain and Germany, (including Prussia and Austria,) excepting Hungary and Transylvania; that the decrease will be much more considerable in Germany; that its rapidity and extent will be proportioned to the rapidity and

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* The recent discovery of gold in Australia has been followed by an extensive abandonment of the sheep culture in that country, and vast numbers of sheep have been already exterminated. The London Times has an elaborate article on the subject, calling upon the government to take measures for averting the further destruction of sheep in Australia. The prospects offered by the mines cause the shepherds to abandon their business, which is very poorly paid, as an Australian shepherd gets less than $100 per annum for his services. It is proposed to raise their wages to keep them from running to the mines.

Another English journal, speaking of the abandonment of the flocks in Australia by the shepherds, says: "Immense flocks, left by the shepherds to be devoured by wild dogs, are being killed by thousands, and boiled down for tallow. Many proprietors, it is stated, have been compelled to dispose of 20,000 sheep in this way. As wool has hitherto been the great staple of the colony, the main reliance of the majority of settlers, and an article on which merchants have been accustomed to make large advances, there are not wanting writers who draw gloomy pictures of the ruin which will, in their judgment, follow this infraction of the ordinary course of affairs."

extent with which the market is supplied from countries which can grow wool cheaper, such as North and South America, Hungary, Southern Russia and Australia.

4. "That wool-growing will undoubtedly largely increase in Hungary and Southern Russia, and that it *ought to* in European and Asiatic Turkey, but will not extensively, until the character of the people and their political institutions are changed.*

5. "That it will also increase at the Cape of Good Hope, Australia, and Van Dieman's Land; but that its economical extension in either of these countries is limited, especially if America becomes a competitor.

6. "That no part of the Eastern continent, or its islands, all things considered, possess equal advantages for wool-growing with some parts of the United States."

The climate of our southern states, for sheep, is not excelled by that of any country; our soil is generally more fertile; we have an abundance of good water, and no long drouths; we have no localities too unhealthy for sheep; and we are four times nearer the European market than Australia. It is certain that if we raised more wool than necessary to supply our own market, we could export it at a fair profit. This is true even of the wool of the northern states.

Since the southern states, as we have shown, can produce wool for *one-third* the cost of northern wool, they could drive all the European nations from the market, with two or three exceptions, and with these they could successfully compete. So that there is no good reason why the South should not immediately embark in the production of wool.

What are the prospects of an increased demand for wool in Europe? Tables of importation show that there has been an increasing demand for wool in Europe ever since the commencement of the present century. In 1771, England imported only 1,829,772 lbs.; in 1810, 10,914,137; in 1825, 43,795,281; in 1840, 52,000,000. The same increased demand for wool has taken place in this country. There is an increasing demand for wool as well as for cotton throughout the civilized world, and this demand will keep pace with the progress of civilization, which incessantly increases our wants.

Our own country already affords a market for 18,000,000 lbs. more of wool than we produce. If our population continues to increase as heretofore, in ten years from this time there will be a demand in the United States alone for at least 137,000,000 lbs. of wool annually.

From the preceding facts it would appear, that the future prospects of the wool market are sufficient to justify very extensive operations in sheep husbandry. We now proceed to consider—

V. *What are the most profitable breeds of sheep for the South?*

This question is discussed at great length by Mr. Randall. He decides that the pure-blooded Merino is, all things considered, the best adapted to the South—it being a hardy breed, requiring no extra skill or experience for its management. Besides, the Merino makes a better cross than the Saxon with the common sheep of the South. Two or three proper Merino crosses with the common sheep of the South raises them to the rank of a first-rate wool-growing sheep, scarcely inferior to the full-blooded Merino. The Saxon makes an indifferent cross, shortening the wool without adding much to its thickness, and thus rendering the fleece lighter. The reverse of this is the result of a Merino cross.

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* That this will not be soon, needs no prophet to tell.

As a guide in the selection of Merinos, Mr. Randall says: "The head should be well carried up, and in the ewe hornless. It would be better to have the ram also hornless. The face should be rather short, broad between the eyes, the nose pointed, and in the ewe fine and free from wrinkles. The eyes should be bright, moderately prominent, and gentle in expression. The neck should be straight, short, round, and stout, not sinking below the level of the back. The points of the shoulder should not be raised above the level of the back. The back to the hips should be straight, the portion immediately back of the shoulder-blades being full; the ribs well arched; the body large and capacious; the flank well let down; hind quarters full and round, the flesh meeting well down between the thighs. The bosom should be broad and full; the legs short, well apart, and perpendicular when the sheep is standing. The skin should be loose, mellow, and of a delicate pink color. A colorless, tawny skin, indicates bad breeding."

Almost every species of sheep is to be found in the United States; but after a careful review of all their different qualities and adaptations to the South, as given by the most competent judges, we do not hesitate to say, that the Merinos are the best for crossing with our common sheep. We might add many pages in confirmation of this opinion. The opinion has prevailed, that the raising of coarse wools is more profitable than the raising of fine; but the reverse we believe to be true. The greatest wool market is that of England, and her chief importations consist of fine wools. If we had fine wools to send to England, we could successfully compete with those countries which now send their fine wools there. England does not want coarse wools, for these she exports herself.

The more we reflect on the subject of sheep husbandry in the South, the more are we convinced of its immense importance here, as a profitable branch of rural economy. A little capital invested in this branch of business would yield a hundred per cent. profit, and that too with but little trouble. All large planters could, with little additional expense, shear annually 1,000 sheep, and at the same time be improving their old lands. The subject is, at least, worthy of serious consideration.

ART. II.—FOREST LIFE AND FOREST TREES.*

THE PINE—OAK—MAPLE—MAPLE SUGAR—LUMBER BUSINESS OF MAINE, AND ITS PROFITS—LUMBER BUSINESS IN LOUISIANA, &C.

To those who take but little interest in the every day life and duties of the laboring classes, it would seem preposterous to undertake to compose a book, and a readable book, too, upon the trees and lumber, the logs and rafts of the hardy woodsmen. But such a book has been written, and lies upon the table before us, and will furnish the materials for a sketch which we design to present to the reader.

The oak has in all ages occupied a prominent position amongst forest trees for its grandeur and stateliness, for the density and amplitude of its shade, the toughness and durability of its wood, for the nutriment afforded by its acorns for the rearing and fattening of stock, particularly swine, and the multifarious uses to which the timber is applied in building, furniture, fencing, &c. In some countries, especially Spain, the flesh of swine fattened on the acorns is esteemed a delicacy, particularly the *hams*, which some consider superior to the Westphalian, or Cincinnati sugar-cured. We southerners, however, dissent from this, as the flesh of our hogs, (perhaps a little rebellious, or too democratic, or hot-blooded,) when acorn-fed, assumes an *oak*-like toughness and fibrous density, almost defying the masticating powers of ordinary grinders. And although, as is stated in Mr. Springer's book, the oak-forests of England were once particularly "valued according to the number of hogs they could fatten, and considered one of the most valuable kinds of property," still we prefer to take our hogs out of "the range," and feed them on corn and peas at least a month before slaughtering them. The skin also becomes very tough, and no matter how much it is cooked, still it is almost inedible.

"What is one man's food is another man's poison;" and although hogs will fatten on acorns they are seriously detrimental to cows, yet they are very fond of them and partake of them greedily, hunting diligently for them in the proper season.

During the last year, 1851, there prevailed an epidemic amongst the oaks of this state and Mississippi, which destroyed thousands of all kinds, and in different kinds of soil. Our oaks seldom exceed one hundred feet in height, and throw out branches low down, unless crowded by other trees, or dense cane-brakes, when, sometimes, there is a clean shaft of forty and fifty feet.

Passing by other trees, we shall next come to the *Maple*, and of this "there are ten species in the United States," and amongst these "the rock maple is in all respects the most remarkable tree of the family." This is what is most generally known as the sugar maple, some few of which are to be found along the streams in the pine wood portions of this state, although no attention has been bestowed on them for their saccharine properties, as they are entirely *overshadowed* by the sugar *cane*.

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* Forest Life and Forest Trees, by J. S. Springer.

"In Massachusetts, between five and six hundred thousand pounds of sugar are annually made from the juice of the rock maple, valued at about eight cents a pound, yielding about forty-four to fifty thousand dollars per annum. It is perfectly easy to make maple sugar as white as the best double-refined loaf-sugar of commerce. It would, however, lose its peculiar acid flavor which now distinguishes it from ordinary cane sugar."

Our author here quotes from Dr. Jackson, of Maine—"Were it generally known how productive are the groves of sugar maples, we should be more careful, and not exterminate them from the forest as is too frequently done. Maple trees may also be cultivated, and will become productive in twenty or thirty years."

The following table sets forth the production of maple sugar in the State of Maine.

"At the Forks of the Kennebec, 12 persons made		lbs. 3,650
On No. 1, 2d Range, one man and a boy made		1,000
In Farmington, Mr. Titcomb	"	1,500
— Moscow, 30 families	"	10,500
— Bingham, 20 "	"	9,000
— Concord, 30 "	"	11,000
		lbs. 36,650
This, at 12½ cents a pound, is worth		$4,581"

Dr. J. states, furthermore, that this can be or is done at a season of the year when little else is to be done, and urges the propriety of procuring suitable apparatus, and thinks they could easily make themselves "independent of the *West Indies*," and could very consistently, no doubt, have added, *and the South*.

When we reflect upon this, it does seem singular that there is not more attention, labor and capital bestowed on the making of maple sugar. One man and a boy made 1,000 pounds, and probably were not engaged very long at it, say one month; and here, with their rude and ill-adapted vessels, without the outlay of anything for machinery, they have made by simple labor, $125, when "they could do little else," and then could turn about and make their grain crop besides. This is far better than making sugar in Louisiana; let those who are interested figure it up.

We next come to the noble PINE, for which our author expresses great admiration, and indulges in some poetical enthusiasm and well turned praise, because "he was reared among the noble pines of Maine, nestled in my cradle beneath their giant forms; and often has the sighing wind made music that has calmed me to repose, as it gently played through their tasseled boughs. Often have I been filled with awe as I gazed upon their massive trunks, and raised my eyes to their cloud-swept tops."

He makes three species of pine: "1st, the white; 2d, pitch pine; 3d, red, or Norway pine. The latter is remarkable for its tall trunk, which sometimes rises eighty feet before it puts out a limb; sometimes found one hundred feet in height, and four feet in diameter. The pitch pine is inferior to the red in size. The largest measurements give a diameter of 2½ feet, and 90 feet in height. This pine is chiefly valued for the excellence of its fuel; and for generating steam is preferable to any other wood. There are $200,000 worth of this wood consumed annually on the rail-roads of Massachusetts. Men are living in Maine and Massachusetts who remember to have seen some of these trees which measured more than a hundred feet in height, and four or five feet in diameter."

The common pine with us is frequently found one hundred and twenty-five feet high, and four and five feet diameter near the ground. Many solid pieces of square timber have been obtained one hundred feet long clear of limbs. But the following account of some trees is certainly almost incredible.

"At present, the white pine is altogether the most important of the species. In New-England, particularly the northern part, it is often found to measure one hundred and fifty feet in height.

"It is said, that not many years since pines were found in the eastern part of New-York, which measured two hundred and forty feet in height. Lambert's pine, on the northwest coast, is found growing to the height of two hundred and thirty feet, and Douglas's pine in the same region, the loftiest tree known, has been said to exceed three hundred feet. A tree near this, which had been blown down by the wind, and certainly not the largest there, was two hundred and fifteen feet long; its circumference, three feet from the ground, was fifty-seven feet nine inches, (nineteen feet three inches in diameter;) and at one hundred and thirty-four feet from the ground, it was seventeen feet five inches in circumference, or about six feet in diameter. In Dr. Dwight's travels we have an account of a tree in Lancaster, New-Hampshire, which measured two hundred and sixty-four feet in length."

In a note, the following extract is given, showing the size of some swamp gums near Mount Wellington, in Tasmania:

"One of them (the gums) had fallen; we, therefore, easily obtained its dimensions. The body was *two hundred and twenty feet from the ground to the first branch*, and the entire length of the tree was three hundred feet. The diameter of the base was *thirty feet*, and at the first branch, twelve feet. Its weight we estimated to be four hundred and forty tons. A gum tree standing near this, measured one hundred and two feet in circumference three feet above the ground. In the space of a square mile, I think there were not less than one hundred of these trees, none less than forty feet in circumference. It must require several thousand years to produce the largest one!" This must be the veritable Brobdingnag country of old Gulliver! If this be true, it certainly will be a very strong argument in the hands of modern philosophers, who so strenuously contend for the *different epochs* of the world, and the gradual and timely razeeing of things generally down to their present Lilliputian dimensions, preparatory to the advent of father Adam. But just to think of a log being *thirty feet through*, or thirty feet high! What use can you put it to?

No axeman could cut off a log of it, no cross-saw could do it a dodge, no saw-mill could give it "*lumber room.*" While on the subject of large trees, it may be well to mention what is called the *red wood* of California, which generally are three hundred feet high, with a clean, column-like body, clear of limbs nearly to the top, and which measure forty and fifty feet in circumference, and work well any and every way into boards or rails, square timber or saw logs. There is also a species of pine there, called sugar pine, of immense height and size. They attain, generally, to a height of three hundred feet, and have been measured sixty-five feet in circumference. The burr or fruit is from twelve to fifteen inches in length.

In the Second Part, the author gives many thrilling narratives of strange adventures—"of hair-breadth 'scapes by flood and field"—of wolves and bears, &c., &c.

In this, mention is also made of the *camp*, and *camp life*, and the various works and duties performed by each one. "Every hand is hired with the distinct understanding that he is to perform a particular part of the labor; and the wages differ accordingly, being regulated, also, by the ability with which they can fill those stations.

"First, then, comes the 'boss,' or the principal in charge; then the choppers, meaning those who select, fell, and cut the logs, one of whom is master chopper; next, the swampers, who cut and clear the roads through the forest to the fallen trees, one of whom is master swamper; then comes the *barker* and *loader*, the man who hews off the bark from that part of the log which is to drag on the snow, and assists the teamster in loading; then the teamster and the cook.

"No little pains are bestowed upon the conveniences designed for the team. With the exception of sporting-horses, I have never witnessed more untiring devotion to any creature than is bestowed upon the ox when under the care of a good teamster. A competent teamster generally calculates to do a good winter's hauling, and bring his team home in the spring in quite as good flesh as when they commenced. The last thing before 'turning in,' he lights his lantern, and repairs to the ox-hovel. In the morning, at the peep of day, or before, his faithful visits are repeated to hay and provender, and card and yoke up. No man's berth is so hard, among all the hands, as the teamster's. Every shoe and nail, every hoof, and claw, and neck, yokes, chains, and sled, claim constant attention. He is out amid the early frost, with (I had almost said) the care of a mother, to see if 'Old Turk' isn't loose—whether 'Bright' favors the near foot—(which felt a little hot yesterday)—then to inspect 'Swan's' provender-trough, to see if he has eaten his meal; for it was carefully noted, that at the 'watering-place,' last night, he drank but little; while at the further end of the 'tie-up,' he thinks he hears a little clattering noise, and presently, 'Little Star' is having his shins gently rapped, as a token of his master's wish to raise his foot, to see if some nail has not given way in the loosened shoe; and this not for once, but every day, with numberless other cares connected with his charge."

In connection with the team, he speaks of there being vast meadows with the most beautiful and nutritious grass, which is fed upon, with avidity, in the summer and fall, and of which most excellent hay is made in the proper season, and preserved for use in the hauling season. There are similar meadows in Louisiana, near immense pine forests, where millions of tons of hay can be made every year, and millions of feet of prime lumber procured, adjacent to fine navigable water, for four, five, and six months of the year. Allusion is here made to Catahoula Lake, in Catahoula Parish.

Part Third is devoted to "River Life"—to floating the rafts of timber to mills and other market-places. This part of the volume is replete with interest, and shows with what labor, and steady, determined perseverance, those hardy men encounter and surmount all difficulties and obstacles through snow, freezing water, ice and "ice-jambs," getting their lumber down in good time to sell at advantageous prices.

The following table, showing the condition of the lumber manufacture and trade on the Penobscot River, has been obtained from the most reliable sources of information, and is presented for the inspection of those interested in such matters:

" Number of saw-mills on the Penobscot and tributaries	240
Number of clap-board machines	20
Number of lath machines	200
Number of feet of long-sawed lumber, annually Price for the same, $10 per M.	200,000,000
Amount of laths sawed annually (pieces) at $1 per M.	400,000,000
Amount of clap-boards sawed annually (pieces) at $18 per M.	5,500,000
Amount of shingles sawed and split annually (pieces) at $2 50 per M.	110,000,000
Amount of pickets sawed annually (pieces) at $6 50 per M.	10,000,000

" There are various other kinds of short lumber—such as staves, sash and window-blind stuff, not enumerated.

" The number of men, oxen and horses employed directly and indirectly on this river alone, would not vary, probably, much from twenty thousand. The reader may inquire, with some curiosity, 'Where does all this lumber find a market?' We may remind such, that Maine has furnished, in times past, the principal part of the lumber consumed in the United States and the *West India Islands*, though other states in the Union possess immense tracts of fine timber land, which, as the lumbering interests of Maine diminish, will be cut and brought into market. Such movements have already become quite common in Western New-York, Pennsylvania and Georgia, as well as in other portions of the country where there are large tracts of timber land, much of which has already *been bought up by Eastern lumbermen.*"

Yes, the southerners will stand by with folded hands, or strut about with the vain pomposity of Mr. Wilkins Micawber, and wait for "something to turn up," while others, possessed of more energy, lay hold of the prize, and appropriate the treasure to their own advantage. Here, within the limits of this state, are vast tracts of pine timber land, inviting capital and industry to improve the golden opportunity, and gather fortunes with very little outlay; but no, they defer, procrastinate and put off, till the "*Eastern lumbermen*" will soon come on and "*buy up*," and pocket it all.

"The island of Cuba alone consumes *forty millions* of feet per annum for the *one article of sugar-boxes.*"

Here, then, at our very doors, almost in our very yards, the "*Eastern lumbermen*" bring their lumber a distance of nearly two thousand miles, and sell it at a remunerative price, while we lounge in listless indolence, without the semblance of an effort at competition.

STATISTICS OF LUMBER ON THE KENNEBEC.

		Average Price.	Total.
No. of Saw-mills	150		
Amount of Long Lumber	66,000,900	$12,00	$802,000
" " Laths	17,000,000	1,00	17,000
" " Clap-boards	4,000,000	15,00	60,000
" " Shingles	26,000,500	2,50	66,250
			$945,250

Probable No. of men employed, 1,200 to 1,500.
" " oxen and horses, 1,000.

STATISTICS OF THE ANDROSCOGGIN.

No. of Saw-mills	60		
" " Shingle machines	10		
" " Clap-board "	9		
" " Lath "	9		
Amount of Long Lumber per anuum	5,000,000	$14,30	$71,500
" " Shingles " "	3,000,000	2,75	8,250
" " Clap-boards " "	450,000	22,50	12,375
" " Lath " "	2,250,000	1,18	2,773
			$94,898

Besides these, there are others on smaller streams whose annual profits amount to more than $50,000.

Our author steps over into the province of New-Brunswick, and gives the following table:

Counties.	Establishments for sawing.	Value of all mills, improvements, &c.	Quantity sawed during year.	Value of lumber.	Number of men.
St. John's	29	£31,700	11,305,000 ft.	£28,262	320
King's	30	14,800	3,905,000	9,785	287
Gloucester	7	15,500	2,920,000	6,050	105
Westmoreland	53	18,530	8,805,000	22,012	324
Kent	10	6,950	2,650,000	6,575	84
Northumberland	15	44,350	15,600,000	39,800	800
Sudbury	7	8,500	4,500,000	11,250	103
Queen's	6	9,200	6,200,000	15,500	118
Charlotte	42	64,500	38,955,000	99,475	1,357
York	29	18,000	9,000,000	22,500	300
Grand Total	228	232,030	103,840,000	261,210	3,792

"To this amount of *manufactured* lumber may be added about two hundred and fifty thousand tons of square timber; this is not far from the annual amount manufactured in this province. Four dollars per ton is about a medium price; this gives a product of $1,000-000. To this we may add, as the product of masts, staves and shingles, per annum, $20,000.

"Grand total of the lumbering produce in dollars, reckoning four dollars to the pound:

Long Lumber	$1,041,840
Square Timber	1,000,000
Other lumber as above	20,000
	$2,061,840"

There is a deficiency in the work in not giving the average prices of oxen, horses, &c. and the wages paid to the workmen in the different departments of labor. A very interesting table might have been formed, showing the prices of these things as far back as could be obtained, and what is customary *now*. This would not only have been interesting to the present readers, but would also be a storehouse for the future writer in years to come.

In this state a good strong yoke of well-broken oxen is worth $60, and four yokes of such will haul a log forty feet long or longer on the ground without any wheels or sled. If the road is wet, or if the weather is cool and a little showery, so as to allow the log to slide with ease, four oxen can haul a forty foot log four feet at the butt with ease. Nearly all the logs are hauled without sleds or wheels, and this is not inaptly called "snaking." Our lumbermen never "*bark*" their logs.

One man can easily cut down, butt off, and log off, ten logs a day, the trees ranging from twenty to thirty inches diameter at the top cut.

Two men working together, one cutting while the other hauled, have cut in one day five trees forty feet long, and hauled them two miles, and were paid one dollar a piece for each log.

The pine and cypress timber is mostly cut into logs of ten feet, and then ten logs are placed side by side and held together by poles and strong pins; this is called "*splicing;*" and each lot of logs thus "*spliced,*" is called "*a crib.*" A log is also technically called "*a tier.*"

"*A raft*" varies in size from 300 to 500 logs, and is made by uniting several "cribs" together. A raft of ash can be made of logs thirty feet long, having from three hundred to five hundred logs. Sometimes our raftsmen carry down on their ash and cypress rafts parcels of oak timber and black locust, or common acacia. These timbers are so very heavy that they will not float; although dry, seasoned oak has been known to float a few days till it became saturated with water, when it will sink unless rescued.

In getting out *square timber* for rafting, the usual day's work for a man is to cut down, score-hack and hew one hundred feet, a foot square at the butt and ten inches square at the top. The customary price for this work is from one and a half to two dollars per hundred feet, and the workman to find himself. Plenty of men can be hired to work at this for $18 per month and board.

Square timber in New-Orleans is worth from four to ten dollars a hundred feet. Timber suitable for ship-building, spars, masts, &c., commands better prices than any other.

In "*cord wood*" one man can cut and pile two cords of wood a day; and there are many who can do more than this either in green or dry wood.

In conclusion, we can commend the volume under consideration to every person, as it is really full of material for every variety of taste; full of fact and fancy, romance and reality.

ART. III.—MAINE.

ITS EARLY HISTORY—PHYSICAL ASPECT—AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL RESOURCES — COMMERCE—MANUFACTURES—GOVERNMENT—FINANCES —POPULATION—SCHOOLS, COLLEGES, &c., &c.

[This paper constitutes another of the series of American states which we have been publishing at intervals for the last two or three years.]

In the year 1603, a company of Bristol merchants fitted out an expedition of two small vessels, under the command of Martin Pring, for the purpose of exploring the shores of America north of Martha's Vineyard and Massachusetts Bay, and of opening a trade with the natives—some very flattering notices having been received of that portion of the New World from Bartholomew Gosnold, who had visited it the year before. Pring landed on the coast of Maine, in June, 1603, discovered some of its principal rivers, and returned to England. In 1606 he repeated the voyage, and made a more accurate survey of Maine than before. The whole country, from the mouth of the Hudson to New-Brunswick, was in the same year granted by James I., of England, to a body of "knights, gentlemen, and merchants," in England, called the Plymouth Company. This company sent out a colony of planters, under George Popham, who landed at the mouth of the Kennebec River on the 21st of August, 1607, and erected a few rude cabins, a store-house, and some slight fortifications. Forty-five only of the emigrants remained at the place, which they called St. George; the rest returned to England in the following December. The place where this colony, usually called the Sagadahoc colony, passed the winter, is now the town of Phippsburgh. The winter was extremely severe, and the poor emigrants suffered from famine and hardships of every description. Their storehouse was destroyed by fire, their commander died, and in the following year they abandoned the settlement, and returned to England.

The principal object of trading vessels to the American coasts, at that early period, was the collection of furs and skins, and of sassafras, then becoming fashionable in England, as a medicinal drug. Pring took home with him one of his vessels entirely freighted with sassafras, and the other with furs and skins.

The next settlers on the New-England coast were the Pilgrims, at Plymouth, in 1620, from whom settlers gradually extended to the coasts of Maine. Gorges and Mason, two Englishmen, had long been engaged in trafficking on these coasts. In 1621 Mason obtained the grant of a tract of country, extending from Salem to the mouth of the Merrimac; and in 1622 Mason and Gorges, together, obtained a grant of the whole tract from the Merrimac to the Kennebec, which they called *Laconia*. They sent out a colony of fishermen, who settled at the mouth of the Piscataqua, where Portsmouth now stands. Others, fishmongers from London, settled at Dover, eight miles up the river. These settlements, in what is now New-Hampshire, are among the oldest in the United States; but they did not prosper, and were only fishing stations. Settlements of stragglers continued to be made eastward along the coast. In 1625 there was a settlement at what is now York, and another at the mouth of the Saco. In 1632 the people of Plymouth established a trading-house on the Penobscot, and one at Machias, at the entrance of the Bay of Fundy, both of which places were plundered by the French in 1633, who claimed the whole country east of Pemaquid Point. In 1635 the French sent an armed vessel to the trading house at Penobscot, and took possession of it, paying the traders for their goods in bills on France. The traders were sent home to Plymouth. An attempt was made to regain the place, but without success; and the French held it many years.

In 1635, the Council of New-England surrendered their patent, and their territories fell to eight different proprietors. Gorges was one of them; and to his territories, lying between the Kennebec and Piscataqua, he gave the name of *New-Somerset*. He sent out his nephew, William Gorges, as his deputy, to establish a government over the settlements. A general court was held at Saco. In 1639, Gorges, who for thirty years had been engaged in colonization projects, and who had lost by them some $98,000, obtained a royal charter for his American provinces, and changed their name to Maine, in honor, it is conjectured, of the Queen of England, who had some feudal relation with the French province of that name. It had, however, been long the custom of the planters and fishermen of the whole New-England coast, to designate it as "the Maine," to distinguish the main land from the islands.

Gorges, who appears to have had somewhat pompous and inflated notions of things, attempted to erect over his fishmonger subjects a stately government, consisting of a lieutenant, chancellor, marshal, admiral, (though he had no navy,) and other high officers, who, together with eight deputies chosen by the people, were to constitute the general court, or legislative council. The little hamlet of Agamenticus he chartered as a city, and changed its name to *Georgiana*, in honor of himself.

When the civil war commenced in England Sir Fernando Gorges adhered to the king, and his enemies succeeded in getting wrested from him all his territory north and east of the Saco. Gorges died in 1647, and in 1652 his little province was annexed to Massachusetts, and Georgiana changed to York.

The heirs of Gorges contended with Massachusetts for Maine until the year 1677, when they sold all their right and title to it for the sum of £1,200. The province, as claimed by Massachusetts, under this purchase, did not extend east of the Kennebec. The French claimed all east of that as part of Acadie; and New-York, then governed by Andros, claimed all between the Kennebec and Penobscot. Andros built a fort at Pemaquid, and purchased peace of the Indians, who had nearly depopulated the white settlements, by agreeing to pay them an annual tribute of corn—a peck for each English family.

From 1670 to 1712, the English settlements in Maine suffered much from the incursions of the Indians and French. Some of the towns were completely destroyed, and large numbers of people massacred. The government of Massachusetts offered a reward of $132 for every grown Indian taken prisoner. By the treaty of Utrecht, in 1712, France yielded to England all her claims to Acadie, and thus the Indian massacres in New-England ceased. Of all the flourishing settlements on the coast of Maine, however, only three were left, the others having been destroyed.

Maine being incorporated with Massachusetts, its history is merged in that of the latter, and we hear nothing more of it until after the Revolutionary War. In 1785 its population was so increased that a convention of the people was held at Portland, to consider the expediency of erecting themselves into an independent state.

Portland was first settled in 1632, and purchased by Gorges in 1637. In 1675 it was destroyed in the Indian war, and again in 1690 by the same enemy. It was rebuilt in 1715, and in twenty years afterwards its trade in lumber was extensive, so that it supplied the British navy with masts and spars, which were chiefly exported in foreign vessels. At the commencement of the Revolution, Portland had a population of 1,900, and a port tonnage of 2,555. It had 230 houses, and a Congregational and Episcopal church. In 1775 it was bombarded by the British, and 136 houses, including the principal public buildings, were destroyed. The place was at that time called Falmouth, which was changed to Portland in 1786. It is now the largest town in Maine.

It was not until 1802 that another effort was made by the people of Maine to become a separate state. In 1788 the people opposed the ratification of the federal constitution, chiefly on the ground that it might prove an obstacle to their favorite project of becoming an independent state, which was not effected until 1820.

The boundaries of Maine, as fixed by the late treaty, are the result of a controversy with Great Britain of a quarter of a century's standing, and one which came near involving the two countries in a war. By the treaty, the St. Croix, and a line running due north from the monument at its source to the St. John's River form the boundary on the east. On the north, the line follows the St. John's and St. Francis rivers to lake Pohenagamook. On the west, the line follows the high lands from that lake in a southwest direction to the northeast corner of New-Hampshire, which state forms part of the western boundary. The Atlantic is on the south.

Maine is the largest of the New-England states, having an area of 30,000 square miles, or more than four times the area of Massachusetts. Maine is diversified, of an uneven surface, but not generally mountainous. Near the sea the land is mostly level. Farther inland, it becomes hilly, and finally mountainous. Mount Kotahdin, the highest elevation, is 5,300 feet high. In the interior there are a number of small lakes, noted for their scenery. Maine has a sea-coast of over 230 miles, indented by numerous bays, and protected by numerous islands. It has more good harbors than any other state in the Union. The land on the sea-coast, for from ten to twenty miles inland, is not very fertile, but improves in quality as one leaves the coast. In the northwest and southeast parts, the soil is light and indifferent. Between the Penobscot and Kennebec there are lands equal in fertility to any in the Union.

The climate of Maine is subject to great extremes of heat and cold, ranging from 100° of Fahrenheit's thermometer, in summer, down to 27° below zero in winter. It is, however, generally healthy. The season of vegetation does not continue in vigor more than three and a half months in the year, its greatest length being from the 21st of April to the 16th of October.

Maine has a number of fine rivers. The Penobscot, 250 miles long, is navigable for large ships to Bangor, 52 miles from the ocean. The Kennebec, 250 miles long, is navigable for large ships 12 miles, to Bath, and for vessels of 100 tons, 42 miles, to Augusta. The Saco is navigable only six miles. The entrance and exit from the rivers of Maine are very much facilitated by the high tides which prevail there. At Bangor, 52 miles from the sea, the tide rises seventeen or eighteen feet.

It is computed, that at least one tenth of the surface of Maine is covered with water, so numerous are the lakes and ponds in the interior. Lake Moosehead, the largest, is 50 miles long, and 10 or 12 broad. Penobscot Bay is 30 miles long and 18 wide. Casco is 20 miles long.

Maine is noted for its fisheries, lumber, and ship-building. Its other products are grass, flax, and all the different kinds of grain; but the season is often too short for Indian corn. The wild lands produce vast quantities of timber and lumber, which may be regarded as the staple production, the annual amount exported being from 10 to $15,000,000.* The state is well adapted to grazing and wool-growing, the amount of wool being several millions of dollars annually. Lime, marble and ice are exported in vast quantities. Ships are manufactured for a foreign market, and the fisheries furnish employment for thousands of the citizens.

The most commercial places in the state are Portland, Bangor, Bath, Hallowell, Augusta, Thomaston, famous for its lime, Belfast, Wiscasset, Wells, Gardiner, Brunswick, Camden, Castine, Eastport, and Topsham, noted for its ship-building.

Government.—The government of Maine consists of a Governor, Senate, and House of Representatives. The governor is elected annually by the people, and has a salary of $1,500. A council of seven persons to advise the governor, is elected annually by the joint ballot of the legislature. The members of the Senate and House of Representatives—the former consisting of thirty-one, and the latter of one hundred and fifty-one members, are elected by the people, annually. All male citizens of the United States, 21 years of age, (except paupers,) who have been in the state three months previous to an election, are voters, by written ballot.

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* For an account of the lumber trade of Maine, see "Forest Life and Forest Trees," an article in the present number of the Review.

Judiciary.—This is vested in a supreme judicial court, and such other courts as the legislature may, from time to time, establish. The Supreme Court has four judges, with a salary of $1,800. The state is divided into three districts, with a judge over each—salary, $1,200. In each of the 13 counties there is a Probate Court, with salaries varying from $150 to $620.

Finances.—Maine has a total debt of $600,500, paying an interest of $36,000. From the last report of the state treasurer, we have the following:

Amount of receipts from May 1, 1850, to April 30, 1851	$426,196 30
Balance of cash in treasury May 1, 1850	125,924 07
	$552,120 37
Amount of expenditures from May 1, 1850, to April 30, 1851, inclusive	$507,450 30
Leaving a balance in treasury May 1, 1851, of	$44,670 07

Some of the heaviest items of expenditure in 1850–'51, were as follows: Pay of the legislature, $47,976; salaries, $24,557; roll of accounts, $15,238; cost of criminal prosecutions, $26,887; school fund, $31,610; state roads and bridges, $6,750; deaf, dumb, and blind, $5,126; state reform school, $3,000; insane hospital, $602; teachers' institutes, $2,600.

The resources of the state, consisting principally of direct taxes and income from the land-office, are estimated at $688,692, for 1851. During the same year the chief resources of income were as follows: Direct taxes, $207,575; land-office, $137,341; permanent school fund, $2,707; school fund, No. 18, $28,440; duties on commissions, $1,850; bank dividends, $800; U. S. stock and premium, $21,850; interest on U. S. loan, $600.

Population.—The progress of the population of Maine, since 1790, has been as follows:

		Increase per cent.
1790	96.540	—
1800	151.719	57.2
1810	228.705	50.7
1820	298.335	30.4
1830	399.955	34.0
1840	501.793	24.9
1850	583.088*	16.6

The present population consists of 103,787 families, containing 296,635 white males, and 285,128 white females. The free colored population is 1,325. The number of dwelling-houses in the state is 95,797. Its number of representatives in Congress is six, having lost one by the apportionment of the last census. As each representative must represent 93,702 persons, Maine has a residuary fraction of 21,020 perons.

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* This gives 1,944 inhabitants to the square mile.

The two most populous cities in Maine are Portland and Bangor, the population of the former being 26,819, and of the latter, 14,441.

Common Schools.—In 1828, the state set apart 20 townships of public land as a basis for a school fund. These lands have yielded, thus far, $104,363, which is permanent school fund. In 1850, there were set apart 24 half townships more. The banks are also required to give to the school fund, semi-annually, one-half of one per cent. on their capital stock. This tax, in 1850, amounted to $27,230; which, added to the interest arising from the school fund, amounting to $6,216, makes $33,492, the sum divided among the towns of the state, in 1850, for school purposes. The inhabitants of every town are also taxed 40 cents each for the support of schools. In 1850, this tax amounted to $264,351.

The number of common schools in the state, in 1850, was 6,627, with 230,274 pupils. The average monthly wages of male teachers is $16 66; of female, $5 92. There are school libraries in nine towns. There are 92 chartered academies in the state. Teachers' institutes also have been in successful operation for several years; 1,732 teachers attended them in 1850.

Colleges.—Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, named in honor of its principal benefactor, the Hon. James Bowdoin, was founded in 1794. Its president is Leonard Woods, jr., D. D. It has 14 professors, 1,051 alumni, and 121 students, at the present time. Its library contains 22,900 volumes. Waterville College was founded in 1820, by the Baptists, at Waterville. David N. Sheldon, D. D., is its president. It has five professors and 76 students. There is also the Bangor Theological Seminary, at Bangor, founded in 1816; the Wesleyan Seminary, at Readfield, founded in 1822. Maine has also the Maine Medical School, at Brunswick, founded in 1820; it has five professors and 51 students.

There were in Maine, in 1840, 3,241 persons, over 20 years of age, who could neither read nor write.

Internal Improvements.—The Cumberland and Oxford Canal, connecting Portland with Sabago pond, and by locks in the Songo River, with Brandy and Long ponds, forms a navigation of 50½ miles. It is 34 feet wide, contains 26 locks, and cost $250,000.

Rail-roads.—The Androscoggin and Kennebec Rail-road is 55 miles long, and cost $1,621,878. The Bangor and Piscataquis is 11¾ miles long. The Calais and Baring, 6 miles long. The Portland, Saco and Portsmouth is 52 miles long. The great Atlantic and St. Lawrence Rail-road, extending from Portland to the Canada line, which it strikes at the town of Canada, in Vermont, where it connects with the St. Lawrence and Atlantic Rail-road, extending from Montreal eastward, is 156 miles long. Rail-road cars now run through from Montreal to Portland. It has a branch 13 miles long.

The Kennebec, Bath and Portland Rail-road connects Portland with Augusta, the capital of the state. It is 60 miles long. There is also the York and Cumberland from Portland to Great Falls, New-Hampshire, which is about 50 miles long.

On the 1st of January, 1852, Maine had 315 miles of rail-road complete and in use, and 127 miles in progress of completion; making in all, 442 miles.

Manufactures.—From the returns of the last census, we have the following statistics on the manufacture of cotton, woolen, and iron, in the state of Maine, up to 1850:

	Capital invested.	Hands employed.	Value of Products.
Cotton goods,	$3,329,700	3,739	$2,596,356
Woolen goods,	467,600	624	753,300
Pig Iron,	214,000	71	36,616
Iron Castings,	150,100	244	265,000

The number of spindles employed in the manufacture of cotton, in 1850, was 142,700; but during that year 112,500 were stopped.

The quantity of lumber of all kinds manufactured in Maine, in 1850, was 203,754,201 feet; in 1851 it was 202,005,830 feet, which, at the average price of $10 per thousand feet, would amount to $2,020,058.

Maine is noted for its ship-building. In 1850 it built 127 ships, 75 brigs, 115 schooners, 3 sloops, and 6 steamers;—in all, 326 vessels, having a tonnage of 91,211. No other state in the Union built half as many, except New-York, which built 224 vessels, of a tonnage of 58,342.

Salt is manufactured in large quantities in Maine; also, paper, leather, hats, caps, bonnets, articles of saddlery, pottery ware, bricks, lime, machinery, hardware, cutlery, cordage, carriages and wagons, furniture, &c. The amount of capital employed in manufactures is not probably less than $10,500,000.

COMMERCE.

Maine exported, in the year ending July 1, 1850, domestic products to the amount of $1,536,818, and foreign to the amount of $29,094. Her total imports, for the same year, amounted to $856,411.

BANKS.

Maine has thirty-seven banks, with a capital of $3,586,100 for all of them. Their entire circulation is $2,994,905. Their total liabilities amount to $8,251,260. These are met by the following resources:

Loans	$6,450,460
Bank balances	813,232
Specie on hand	630,296
Real estate	102,570
Bills of Maine banks	150,016
Bills of other banks	104,686
Total resources	$8,251,260

Such is the condition of banking in Maine, as furnished by the last annual abstract, published by the Secretary of State in May, 1851. The average dividends of these banks is about four per cent.

More complete statistics of Maine cannot be given, until the returns of the last United States census are known.

ART. IV.—FREE BANKING.

It is our purpose, in this and its succeeding articles, to discuss the subject of Free Banking. Our inquiry will be directed first to banking in general, and lastly to that system which obtains in the State of New-York, and is now proposed for adoption in the State of Louisiana. Whilst we will attempt no formal defence of the banking laws of Louisiana now in operation, we will, as fairly as possible, meet all the arguments urged in favor of the New-York system, and endeavor to prove it faulty in its nature, and ill-adapted to the wants of our condition.

To facilitate our inquiry, we will examine, as briefly as possible, the system of a paper currency, and deduce therefrom such principles as may test the soundness of the schemes which are proposed for our adoption.

As words often mislead, and have been well called "the counters of wise men, but the money of fools," we will, without delay, fix the meaning of the words which head our article.

Free Banking is a taking phrase, and well adapted to the popular ear, but its meaning is entirely technical; and when the words are used, that system only is referred to which has for the basis and guarantee of its circulation, municipal, state, or national stocks. Under this classification there may be a multitude of varieties, but it is not now our business to examine their details. The existence of this system necessarily implies a national, state, or municipal debt of considerable extent. Without such debt no stock would exist; and in its proper place we will discuss the propriety of making state or municipal credits the basis of our medium of exchange. We will only add in this connection, that the extent of such debt is the measure of Free Banking, and that prosperous and debt-paying states can alone furnish a suitable basis for such currency; else the circulation and capital of the banks will be as uncertain as its basis, and will prove as unfit a medium of currency as the promissory notes of private individuals.

We will make our inquiry still easier if we go at some length into the nature of banks in general, and from the history and experience of the past, eliminate such general truths as may guide us in coming discussions.

By the general term banks, we of course allude to those institutions which receive deposits, discount notes, and issue paper money.

Important as all their functions are, the last named is far the most potent. Although banks of mere discount and deposit may wield immense power through the agency of bills of exchange and the use of large deposits, yet their evils are few, and their abuses and benefits confined to classes purely commercial. Far more extensive are the powers of banks of issue. Their operations touch every branch of industry, and either for weal or woe, most sensibly affect the great producing and laboring classes of the community.

What is then a bank note?

For simple as the question may appear, its answer deserves to be constantly remembered by us. So much are men led away by the mere forms of life, that it is often important for us to call to mind the simple, but fundamental and primary truths which lie beneath the mere exterior of society.

Trite as the truth is, we must in this discussion unceasingly remember that paper money is nothing but a loan from the public to the bank which issues it. They are mere substitutes for money, and bear no higher relation to the public wealth than individual promissory notes.

So far and so long as the public receives them in exchange for their products, so far and so long is the loan made to the banks. We do not deny to banks invaluable service to the commercial community. But such institutions can no more create money than the mill which converts rags into paper.

Their great uses are found in affording simple and convenient modes of paying and collecting money, in aiding business-men to anticipate the maturity of their credit sales, and in furnishing a portable and convenient medium for the exchange of commodities. Their functions are no higher, and all the complicated movements attending their operations are foreign to their essential nature.

Another fruitful source of popular error here stares us in the face. It is the supposed influence of banks on credit. The earnest advocates of these institutions generally commence by an exaggerated statement of the benefits resulting to individuals and nations from the greatest possible extension of credit. Assuming that the banking system is the one most likely to effect this object, they forthwith declare it the *credit system*, and denounce any attempt to reform its abuses as a war upon credit itself. It is hardly necessary to disprove such statements. For it is not true that individuals or nations are benefited by the greatest possible extension of credit.

Credit may be pushed to an excess which generates extravagance and wild speculation, results that bear with them, as we of the South know too well, a train of the most disastrous consequences.

It is not true, as is often urged by the friends of this system, that the great prosperity of the United States has been owing to the principle of credit.

Labor is the only ultimate source of the wealth, and, we may add, the welfare of nations. It has been well called "The massy Doric" which sustains the fabric of society.* The secret of our national success is the steady, resolute, persevering, indefatigable, self-denying labor, performed for the first time in the history of the world, for their own account, by the whole population of a great country.

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* Mackintosh.

The favorite topics of our fathers were not the advantages of getting credit, but of industry, economy, temperance and freedom from debt.

Credit, absolutely viewed, is a good thing; but every transaction that brings it into operation, generates an element of directly opposite character.

There are two parties to all transactions of credit. If one gives credit, the other gets into debt. Now debt, absolutely viewed, is a bad thing, and it is only by comparing the results of the operation as viewed under both of these aspects, that we can decide whether it will prove beneficial or otherwise. Credit is, therefore, far from being an unmixed good. We may have too much of it; and the only way of assuring ourselves that we are within the proper limits, is to follow the dictates and laws of nature.

If a man have sufficient confidence in his neighbor to trust him with *real* capital, the credit will no doubt be beneficial to both parties. But where credit is artificially stimulated by law—where companies are incorporated for the express purpose of making loans, and virtually supplied by the state with unlimited amounts of fictitious capital, to be employed in this way, it is apparent that the principle will and must be pushed to ruinous excess.

Having thus attempted to divest banking of some of those errors which cluster around it, and well nigh conceal the true character of the fabric, let us now ascertain what are the requisites to a sound paper currency.

The first essential of sound banking is, that its paper shall be instantly, and on demand, convertible into the money it professes to represent. We had almost pronounced this an axiom in banking. But unfortunately the disasters of 1836 and 1840, recent as they are, have failed to impress this truth deeply on our minds. Already we hear of schemes advocating inconvertible and irredeemable paper money, based on the landed property of the state. It is true that they are mere theories, and ever may they remain such.

All men are forced to acknowledge the salutary check which specie-payment imposes on a system whose worst feature is its constant tendency to excess.

Legislatures have in vain enacted penal clauses to prevent mismanagement of banks.

In vain have they attempted a supervisory control over them, through boards of currency and examining committees.

All such expedients, good enough as far as they go, utterly fail to guarantee to us a sound paper currency.

The ingenuity of man is superior to the restraints of law; and where interest impels, legal hindrances are mere cob-webs in the path of the adroit. "To drive a coach and four through a bill in chancery" is not easier than to drive one through a banking law.

Instant convertibility to specie is therefore vitally important in securing a sound paper currency. Gold and silver are mighty conservators in our world of commerce, acting as comptrollers over the evil and radical tendencies which always attend banking in this country. No wonder, then, that their importance is greatly exaggerated, and their exportation viewed as a national calamity.

Lest we may be thought to have the taint of such exaggeration, we will close this article with some inquiry into the relation borne by the precious metals to other articles of value, and in what consists their superiority as a medium of exchange.

It is clear that gold and silver, whilst they have in themselves an inherent value, are not desired by the tradesman, the laborer, and the merchant, for such innate worth. Their value is two-fold. First, like corn, tobacco, and cotton, they are worth precisely the cost and trouble of their production. If the miner and capitalist did not get a just return for their labor and capital in the price of the ore, they would at once abandon its production, until a decrease of supply enabled them to obtain a fair remuneration for their toil and outlay. Thus far the precious metals differ in no wise from corn or tobacco; and either of these two commodities might, and, in fact, have been, employed in the same functions as gold and silver. But, custom and convenience have found the precious metals the best instrument of exchange. In illustration and support of this view, we quote at length from one of the ablest politico-economical writers of the day.

"On the whole, no commodities are so little exposed to causes of variation. They are more constant than almost any other things in their cost of production; and from their durability, the total quantity in existence is at all times so great in proportion to the annual supply, that the effect on value, even of a change in the cost of production, is not sudden. Gold and silver are more fit than any other commodities to be the subject of engagements for receiving or paying a given quantity at some distant period. If the engagement were made in corn, a failure of crops might increase the burden of payment in one year to four-fold what was intended; or an exuberant harvest might sink it in another to one-fourth. If stipulated in cloth, some manufacturing invention might permanently reduce the payment to a tenth of its original value.

"The thing which people would select to keep by them for making purchases must be one which, besides being divisible and generally desired, does not deteriorate by keeping. This reduces the choice to a small number of articles.

"In order that the value of the currency may be secured from being altered by design, and may be as little as possible liable to fluctuation from accident, the articles least liable of all known commodities to vary in their value, the precious metals, have been made in all civilized countries the standard of value for the circulating medium; and no paper currency ought to exist, of which the value cannot be made to conform to theirs."*

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* Mills' Political Economy, vol. i.

ART. V.—THE UNITED STATES—HER PAST AND HER FUTURE.

THE unexampled progress of the United States is the wonder of the world. A simple glance at her condition at present in comparison with it when she began, fills the mind with the greatest astonishment. Beginning with a population of three millions, she now embraces upwards of twenty-three millions. Covering, in the outset, a territory reaching from the Atlantic to the Mississippi, she has gradually extended her western borders, until stretching across the vast continent, she has established her western boundary on the shores of the Pacific. With but ten or twelve colleges and a few more high schools, and a corresponding deficiency in all the facilities for general elementary education, she now has several hundred colleges, with the means everywhere afforded for the diffusion of the highest order of literary instruction. With but a few, and those imperfect, manufacturing establishments, and the absence of well nigh all the artificial elements of public wealth, she now has establishments for the manufacture of every kind of her raw material, internal improvements for the development of her industry, enterprise and natural resources, and everywhere indications of the highest national and individual prosperity.

The inquiring mind is naturally incited to investigate the causes of these wonderful results. These are doubtless many; some of them being rather the conditions or occasions of progress, without which it would not have occurred, rather than the efficient agents of it.

The particular era in the world's history in which our country has existed has been highly favorable to this progress. Other nations have begun their career in periods of comparative darkness, and have been compelled to struggle during all their history with elements of weakness, which in these periods were imbibed. But ours began with the benefit of all their experience, and in the midst of the light they had stricken out. Not merely the light upon the great problems of government and of national policy which the experience of other nations had elicited, but all the treasures of literature, science and art, which the wise of other ages and countries had accumulated, were all ours from the first moment of our national existence. It was in that period of the history of nations when they had come to a juster appreciation of the true elements of national glory,—when, as the result of former preparatory experience, they had begun fully to avail themselves of the advantages of science in its application to industrial pursuits, of commerce in its most extensive range, and of those elements of activity and energy which have so much contributed to the prosperity of the world, that the United States began her existence; and it has been under all these favorable influences, and surrounded by these propitious circumstances, that her course thus far has been run: so that, like no other nation, she never had a childhood of probation and weakness, but sprung fully grown into existence, with all the elements of maturity, and with all the benefits of culture and experience.

The sturdy, self-denying qualities, the lofty, independent spirit which the colonial condition of the people and the peculiar character of the then wilderness country tended to develop and foster, gave to the American population, in the outset, a physical, moral and intellectual character peculiarly favorable to national progress, while the protracted and doubtful character of the struggle for independence and the teachings of a bitter experience, all conspired to produce a love of liberty, a heartfelt patriotism, and a capacity for self-government, the very qualities essential to a successful republic.

The rich, abundant and varied character of the natural resources of our country have furnished many facilities for extraordinary prosperity. No nation perhaps in this respect has enjoyed equal advantages. These have opened up to our people well nigh every advantage afforded by the material world, and obviating the necessity of those artificial helps to which most countries are compelled to resort, make the means of abundant living everywhere easily attainable. Their promising, inviting character, is a perpetual incentive to industry and enterprise, and call into constant activity the elements of social well-being.

But though these have been the occasions, without which probably American progress would not have been such as it has been, yet there are other facts to which it is to be referred as its immediate and efficient cause.

The studied abstinence from all international difficulties, which has been a fixed principle in our national policy, has been among the prominent of these causes. While most other governments, either from a desire of power, or from weakness or bad management, have been, during much of their history, engaged in actual wars, or under that constraint which results from a constant apprehension of such catastrophes, our government, acting upon the noble policy of non-intervention in foreign broils, has sought in a high and honorable way only to pursue its own interests in its own legitimate sphere. Though ever sympathizing with the oppressed of all countries, and deeply interested in the prevalence of free institutions, of civil and religious liberty everywhere, yet it has ever felt that these ends could be best subserved by the force of moral suasion and the light of its own brilliant example, rather than by the stern edict of the sword.

Those drains of population and treasure,—those immense national debts, the interest on which have made necessary such oppressive and ruinous taxes,—those inroads upon social economy and happiness,—those blights upon public morals and individual character, which a contrary policy has brought upon other countries, and which has contributed so much to cripple their energies and resources, ours has, for the most part, escaped. But not merely in this negative sense has our country gained, in comparison with others, by this policy, but positively in that these advantages thus retained have themselves constituted most efficient elements of individual and social progress.

In the absence of these interfering warlike entanglements, our people have not been under the distracting influences of a military spirit, or squandered their time and diverted their energies in constant and extensive warlike preparations, but have been in the condition all the while to devote themselves exclusively to the arts of peace, to the ordinary pursuits of life, to those interests which are the proper foundation of individual happiness and national greatness.

This peaceful policy, securing to us relations of amity, and even of confidence, with all nations, has opened up to us, uninterruptedly, the most extensive range of commerce and all the benefits of the widest international intercourse; advantages which, while they are inferior to none in their influence upon the prosperity of a nation, have been enjoyed in like degree, and with like constancy, by no other nation.

That principle, so distinctly guarantied by our free institutions, of throwing every man upon his own resources, and allowing him the largest liberty compatible with the rights of others, to work out his own fortunes, has been among the most efficient of the causes of this astonishing national progress. It would be impossible that a people as enlightened as the Americans have ever been, and in a country enjoying so many natural advantages, should not, when thus unrestricted, rapidly improve their condition. In the enjoyment of this principle, the American people have had every opportunity for the development of the individual man. It is this, which more than all else, has fostered industry, enterprise, self-reliance, the spirit of self-culture, indeed, every quality which tends to elevate man individually, and to improve his outward circumstances. In allowing merit, in whatever ranks it exists, to seek and obtain its own reward, it has furnished the most powerful incentive to all classes of men to elevate their condition. Talent of every kind,—all the resources of the people, therefore, are being brought constantly into use, and are contributing their full benefit to the entire community. Allowing, and, indeed, encouraging all to select their vocations according to their tastes and genius, the various departments of life are supplied with the best possible qualifications, and the whole machinery of society has every possible advantage for its successful operation. Under the influence of this great principle, the various interests of society have been allowed to regulate themselves. Nothing, therefore, has been premature and partial; but the various departments of a just, social and political economy have been developed just as the country has demanded them. The growth of every interest has been healthy and sound. The resources of the country have been brought into use at the right time and in right degrees, making its prosperity symmetrical and durable.

Indeed, whatever other causes may have contributed to the prosperity and glory of our country, it has been, after all, to this all-pervading principle that they are indebted for their efficiency and success. So related is it to all the sources of progress, that it needs but to have a distinct recognition and application everywhere to secure every possible advantage to every possible interest. It is not therefore by positive, or by partial legislation, that our progress is to be perpetuated; it is by the removal of all restrictions not necessary to civil liberty, and the dissemination of those influences of education and religion which improve the people's capabilities for this enlarged sphere of self-government, that this glorious result is to be secured.

But there is in the American race an actual superiority, and in this is found another prominent cause of the rapidity of our national progress.

All the races now existing are but the results of combinations of different races, and the superiority of a race is dependent upon two facts: the mixture of which it is composed, and the nearness of the time at which the mixture took place. Every race has some qualities in higher degree than others, which are in fact the characteristics of that race. The French, for example, are distinguished for their excitability and enthusiasm; the Germans for their plodding, philosophic cast, and the Spanish have their distinctive qualities. Now, though these qualities are all desirable in themselves, yet it is their harmonious combination that constitutes a perfect race. Such a combination, by the mixture of these races, would be approximated. For awhile in many instances the result of the mixture might not be different from one of the original elements, yet the effect of the law applicable to the case would be to secure a combination of the qualities distinctive of the original stocks, and consequently a superior race. The French race is composed originally of a small number of distinct races, being descended mainly from the Gallic. Hence the predominance in it of certain qualities, and the absence of certain others, giving rise to that evident want of balance in their constitution, and that light, vascillating temperament so characteristic of it. The German race is derived from a somewhat greater variety; but those qualities were distinguished mainly for the same attributes, the phlegmatic, the patient, the philosophic, the qualities in which the French original was deficient. Hence, though this race is distinguished in a remarkable degree by these characters, yet being denied opportunity by reason of the limited number of its original elements to combine other qualities, it is without them, and therefore, like the French, though in a different way, is partial, and without balance. Now, the English race is a compound of a greater variety than any that preceded it. The original characteristic element of the German, viz: the Teutonic, the light mercurial element of the Gaul, found now in the French, as well as other important elements, found in the Dane and the Celt, all have combined to form the English. Accordingly, there exists in that race a more perfect and harmonious blending of all qualities than in any that has preceded it. In it are found the philosophic, the æsthetic, and the practical. The elements were sufficiently varied and comprehensive to embrace all the qualities of a perfect constitution, and the result is shown in the presentation of race combining these characteristics. But the American race has not only been formed from a greater number of races, embracing nearly every prominent variety on the globe, by which the chances for happy combinations have been increased, but those varieties being to a large extent of races more or less cultivated, while the original elements of most other races were barbarian, have made the ingredients of these combinations more marked and distinctive, and hence the combinations themselves more perfect.

But the increased opportunities for these favorable combinations in the American race, has been owing not only to the greater number of elements upon American soil, but to the greater facilities for their intermixture. In all other countries the distinction of *caste* has greatly hindered the combinations their limited varieties might have allowed; but here, under the benign operation of free institutions, no such restrictions exist, giving among the American people a still greater application of the principle upon which the superiority of a race depends.

But this combination is not only more extensively existing, and finer, thus securing finer specimens of the human race, but because of this greater variety in the elements of commixture—the combinations themselves are more varied, giving rise to a greater variety of talent and character, an element of superiority of race, which a mere glance at the variety of qualification the different departments of life demand, and the evils of that sameness in mental constitution, which most other races exhibit, will not fail to render obvious.

For the same reason that the superiority of a race is dependent upon the variety and character of the elements which compose it, that superiority will be relatively great in the ratio of the nearness of the time at which the mixture took place. The effect of time, where there is no foreign admixture, is to give ascendency to some one class of qualities, the consequence of which is a want of equilibrium and power in the mental constitution, and a general sameness of mental development. This was the case in the Roman race, which, though in the outset a highly superior one, yet not enjoying this constant accession of foreign ingredients, ultimately ran down into feebleness and decay; and the English and French would have long since thus decayed, but for the constant accession of foreign blood. But in this respect, likewise, the American race has had advantages over all others. The origin itself of the race is not only more recent, but in every moment of its history foreign ingredients have been pouring in, giving to it all the benefit of nearness of time in the combinations which form it. In both particulars, therefore, in respect of which the superiority of a race depends, the American race has advantages over all others, and hence is, without doubt, superior.

But in addition to these causes of a mere philosophical character for the superiority of the American race, every influence arising out of the nature of free institutions, and the favorable character of the country itself, which has tended to the development and improvement of the individual man, has conspired to heighten this result.

This superiority, thus demonstrated on philosophical principles, is confirmed by all those exhibitions which have been furnished in all contests of arms with other races, and by its evident higher advancement in all the important departments of human interest.

The wide diffusion of enlightened Christianity among the American people has been another cause of our wonderful national progress.

The original colonists of this country brought with them a high degree of the religious element. This was particularly the case with the Puritans, who settled New-England, with the Quakers, who settled Pennsylvania, and was more or less so with all the other colonies. Starting with a population of this character, with all along an unrestricted access to the Bible, and a full enjoyment of the rights of conscience, it naturally would be expected that Christianity would prevail in a remarkable degree. But when, in addition, the fact is considered that in the equal privileges which all the various denominations composing the church enjoy, all classes are accommodated in their religious preferences, are allowed unrestrictedly to push the claims and interests of their own peculiar religious views, a state of things nowhere else existing, a still further reason is seen that Christianity should have had an extraordinary diffusion in this country.

But while this country has enjoyed a diffusion of Christianity in this remarkable degree—the free competition existing among the various Christian denominations, the effect of which has been the elicitation of truth—the absence of all restriction upon the circulation of bibles and religious books, and any proper modes for the spread of religious knowledge, and the high character of those specially engaged in the propagation of religious light, the result of this high and general appreciation of Christianity, have all tended to make the Christianity prevailing, in a remarkable degree, enlightened, pure and liberal.

If, therefore, Christianity tends to promote national progress, that tendency has been felt in this country in a high degree. That such has been its tendency in this country is evident from these considerations:

Right Christianity, fixing in the mind correct notions of the objects of human life, and of the relations sustained to God and the world, is favorable to correct thinking, and hence to the formation of right opinions and sentiments in regard to all the various affairs of life. In its removal of low and groveling tastes, of bad passions and appetites, it creates dispositions practically to conform to this knowledge, and hence to a devotion to the real interests of life, to that which elevates, refines, and makes life happy, honorable and useful.

Its benevolent feature prompts to enterprises to relieve the needy, to elevate the degraded, and to the employment of such ameliorating processes as secures the constant improvement of the less favored classes. And in this country, where the competitions of sects are unrestricted, it gives rise through their instrumentality to ample educational facilities. Indeed, statistics show that Christianity is doing more, in the schools and colleges it has reared, to secure the diffusion of education, than all other agencies now in operation. And by other instrumentalities which it founds and sustains for the dissemination of books, and the various means of information, especially among the common people, it has contributed largely to the general prosperity of the country.

But not only by its influence upon the intellect of the country, does it contribute powerfully to its progress, but in a not less degree by its influence upon its morals. That sort of conscientious regard for right which restrains men from wrong-doing, where civil law is inapplicable—that sort of integrity which inspires mutual confidence in the various relations of life, in the very nature of things are powerful elements of progress. Their importance is rendered evident by reference to France for example, in which, in a marked degree, they have been wanting. But it is the effect of Christianity to promote these elements. It is evident, therefore, from all these facts, that Christianity in this country, enjoyed as it is in such a remarkable degree, has contributed powerfully to its progress, especially as, from the nature of our free institutions, these effects have been unrestricted in their legitimate power and influence.

Indeed, so powerful is the influence of this great element—so efficiently does it tend to rectify man to keep all his energies within their right channel, that itself alone, under the fostering, protecting care of our free institutions, would suffice to conduct our country triumphantly and gloriously to its highest, noblest destiny.

The motives which prompted the settlement of this country, were unlike those which actuated perhaps all other colonists. The Europeans, who originally colonized Mexico and South America, were influenced mainly by the desire of mere gain. But the motives of those who sought a home within the limits of our territory, were higher and purer, looking in most instances to strictly religious ends. It is not surprising that such a people should become highly prosperous. A nation starting with such motives, and becoming in its onward course the brightest example of religious purity and efficiency, could not fail to propitiate and enjoy the favor of heaven. Such a nation, presenting so bright a spot amidst surrounding darkness and gloom, could not fail to attract the special regard of Divine Providence. But to be the object of the favorable notice and special blessing of heaven, who can estimate the importance of the advantage in all that pertains to progress? To have all that class of circumstances which lie without the sphere of the nation's control, but to whose operations, whether favorable or unfavorable, it is inevitably subject—to have all these directed to the promotion of the nation's weal, a condition of things enjoyed when that nation is the object of divine complacency—who can estimate the value of the advantage to national prosperity?

But while these causes, so well calculated to produce the wonderful progress which has marked our national history, have had such untrammeled and abiding existence, and have indeed effected such wonderful results, yet it ought not to be disguised that as our peculiar social organization and civilization have had time to advance towards maturity, and to assume their own distinctive development, principles and tendencies have begun to exhibit themselves which naturally lead to decay, and which therefore may reasonably excite the fearful apprehensions of the friends of American civilization.

A high degree of the philosophic element, of the capacity for that kind of reflection and extended generalization which seems to the mind a just appreciation of broad general principles, is essential to every successful form of civilization. In our country, and in all republics, government is maintained not so much by physical force as by an appreciation of fundamental principles, which principles are embodied in the written constitution, and in the established modes of its administration. Not merely intelligence, therefore, but a certain order of intelligence is demanded by free governments. Without it, these great principles being unrecognized, the proper guides of the state are lost sight of, and the government becomes the subject of the caprice of an unregulated, vascillating public.

All successful social compacts demand a constant accession of new truths, of new and pertinent ideas. The original thought, the abstract truth, which emanates from profoundly philosophical minds, lead the way in all progress, and must be in the advance in any prosperous condition of society. As existing ideas are worked up and receive their full development, society, without additional accessions, loses its enterprise and means of progress, and, though it may rest awhile at its attained elevation, it will soon retrograde into decay. It is to this principle that is to be referred the decay of various nations, of which Spain is a distinguished instance. In her palmy days the philosophic element blended with her form of civilization in sufficient degree to secure this necessary condition of national progress; but when, from the vast resources of wealth, and especially of mineral wealth, her newly-acquired American possessions opened up, her attention became engrossed in those material groveling things; the philosophic element losing its importance and its cultivation, these accessions of new truth ceased, and Spain lost her superiority and her glory.

A correct understanding of the doctrines of Christianity, the peculiar exercises their practical realization involve, and especially the application of Christian principles to practical life, in which is implied the system of moral philosophy itself, all likewise demand a prominent development of the philosophical or reflective faculties, a large capacity for generalization, for the appreciation and application of abstract principles.

But in our country, where the popular element prevails, and the standard of knowledge is universally sought to be regulated by the popular apprehension—where, from the abundance of external resources, there exists none of that stress of circumstances by which, men being thrown back upon themselves, the higher powers of the mind are taxed and brought into use—where the impatience and restlessness of the people, and especially of the youth, the result of the habits of self-indulgence, and the early period of the transition to manhood conventionally established, are fatal to all plans of extended education, of patient, laborious, protracted mental discipline, necessary for such development and training of these higher powers as will give them prominence and influence in the general tastes and pursuits of the people—where, indeed, the utilitarian, *practical* spirit of the age so incorporates itself into the meagre system of education that does exist, as to divest it of all the power it might otherwise have for the cultivation of these higher powers of mind, it is not to be expected that the philosophic element will find that culture necessary to the maintenance of its proper place among the mass of the people, but, on the contrary, must assume a gradual decline.

That this decline has already begun to exhibit itself, existing facts abundantly prove. No longer does the public mind hold first in importance those abstract principles, which constitute the foundation and frame-work of our peculiar government, and by which its genius is determined. Such a characteristic is contemned, and often derided as metaphysical and impracticable. But, rather, expediency and *practicalness*, as determined by the *immediate* bearings and consequences of measures, are the only points surveyed in the determination of political questions. No longer are statesmen appreciated as in the days of Jefferson, Hamilton, Madison, and Jay, for their profound acquirements in the philosophy of government, and the weight they give to the great principles of the constitution in all their political sentiments and policy, the result of a profound capacity, justly to appreciate and construe those great principles; but brilliancy, the power to captivate and sway the people by specious declamation and the charms of a striking elocution, are the most favored passports to public promotion and influence. Authors of deep originality, whose pages everywhere abound with specimens of the widest, truest philosophy,—who, indeed, as the originators of new truths, extend the boundaries of knowledge, and are properly the great teachers of the age, are scorned as visionary and unintelligible; while writers who, for the very reason they are destitute of the highest attributes of mind, dealing in topics secondary in importance to the great problems of human life, but accommodated to the apprehension and tastes of the common mind, are everywhere admired and embraced as the true prophets of the age. Writings, whether old or recent, whether found in books or reviews, abounding in deep, comprehensive thought, and spreading out to the gaze of the thoughtful the profoundest acquirements of research, the deepest lessons of wisdom, and the brightest illuminations of a true, all-embracing philosophy, and that, too, upon subjects relevant to the times and the existing wants of men, are unpatronized, neglected, despised; while the Pen-and-Ink Sketches, the Hurry-graphs, the Random Shots, the Passing Glimpses—crude, meagre, undigested, impromptu productions of the superficial, teeming from the press in the form of books, periodicals, newspapers,—constitute the staple reading of the country. Indeed, philosophy, as that term signifies great abstract principles, and those principles in their application to the great problems of human life, finds but few admirers in our favored country; and none encounter denunciation more unsparing, and ridicule more bitter, than those who have caught its spirit, and manifest its teachings in their public exhibitions.

Another ground of apprehension in regard to the permanence and success of American institutions, is found in a decline in a proper regard for the tenure of liberty. Our forefathers knew from bitter experience the value of liberty, and in their political opinions and conduct were mainly influenced by this consideration. They knew what was involved in the want of liberty, and the difficulties of its acquirement. It was not, therefore, to be expected that they would do anything to forfeit liberty. But our generation, inheriting from their birth this happy condition, and knowing from experience no other, are without opportunity to learn from contrast its inestimable value; and for the same reason, together with the fact of the steady success of our institutions, are without any salutary apprehension of the possibility of its loss. Our people, therefore, give but little attention to the tenure of their liberties. But such a state of things must necessarily be full of danger to our institutions. In our country, where there is nothing but the controlling power of principle to keep government within its legitimate sphere, and to secure uniformity to its general movements and policy, the absence of this great guiding conservative spirit, the real foundation of all free governments, necessarily involves an abandonment of the government to the mere chances of accident and caprice. The effect of the declining influence of this spirit is already seen, in the formation of parties upon principles, and looking to ends, not having respect to the true interests of the country, but rather to selfish results, giving rise thereby to political corruption, and a general depravation of the moral sentiment of the country. Still further is it seen in a general looseness of opinion as to the objects and policy of the government, appropriating its powers to the accomplishment of any favorite schemes of personal interest, and recklessly wielding it to any designs at home or abroad, which passion, prejudice, or any visionary theory of human amelioration may suggest. In short, it is seen in the growing unpopularity of all treatment of and reference to the principles of the constitution, growing out of the irksomeness of their hampering, restraining influences, and a general carelessness of the effects of measures upon the integrity and security of those principles. It is true the American people love liberty, and in any final contest in which its safety was involved, would defend it to the utmost; yet the danger is, that through this recklessness of its tenure and the increasing tendency to its abuse, the government will at last be swung so far from its true position, that any exercise of this affection may be unavailing for its restoration, and in spite of it, our free institutions will fall into ruin. Our country is not, even at this early day, without examples of the dangerous consequences of this growing evil. Already has government, in a reckless disregard of her true functions, been sought to be wielded to sectional oppression; and even now, with a vain belief of the omnipotence of the nation and its necessary perpetuity, in its present free and prosperous condition, in any circumstances of opposition and peril, is the dangerous experiment, new in our history, and contrary to its settled policy, sought to be tried, of making it the umpire and dictator of all other nations.

There is a growing demagogism in our country that is destined to endanger our institutions. Men of the highest popular talent, especially in this day, in which public speaking is so common, and, indeed, a demand for the attainment of all grades of office, can attain a controling influence over the public mind. But when once attained, such is the charm of their names, that with their opportunities of access to the popular ear which the hustings afford, and in the absence among the people of any sensitive regard for the integrity of our institutions, the political direction of the people is almost entirely subject to their dictation. But such is the insidious corrupting character of political ambition, that many of these men, thus given up to its sway, are for the most part selfish in their aims, and are restrained in their efforts to compass these aims by no law, but the fear of the forfeiture of the position already attained. In this power of control over the masses, thus held by a few, and which is so liable to be wielded to corrupt purposes, there is just reason for the apprehension of radical evil to our institutions and general national interests.

There can be no doubt that the practice of public speaking for office, and as is the custom more recently for the highest offices, is destined to work the most serious harm. It gives to a few men undue influence, and that, too, as oratorical ability is not generally accompanied by the soundest judgments—men not the most safe and reliable in council—while it closes the way to preferment and influence of men who are without the gifts of oratory, but who, from the ripeness of their judgments, the extent of their acquirements, and the integrity of their characters, have the highest capabilities for public usefulness. It gives, too, increased facilities for political combinations and for increasing the tyranny of partyism; and hence, for the perpetration of all the mischief resulting from the forcible direction of the masses to corrupt and selfish ends. And as eloquence is destined to be increasingly used and increasingly potent as an instrument of political ambition, these evils are destined to be felt in increasing weight upon the country. Already they are seriously felt in the scheming and trickery, practised in high political life, for the high offices of the government, of which the people have occasional casual intimations, and which plainly show the extent to which the country is subjected to a corrupt political demagogism.

There are various social evils that are gradually diffusing themselves, which are calculated to work much harm, as well to our institutions as to our form of civilization.

There is in some sections of our country a species of religious fanaticism, the result of a good degree of the religious element, unchastened by common sense and the light of the Bible, that, taking a partial and perverted view of religious obligation, assumes the ultra ground, that every man may determine the extent of his allegiance to civil government, and is therefore competent to set aside the obligations of government in the pursuance of any extravagant notion his own disordered fancy may suggest. An assumption not only at war with all government, but which in ours, the result of mutual concession and compromise, must result in revolution and anarchy.

In a country like ours, enjoying the largest amount of civil liberty, and abounding in all the means of easy living, and fostering consequently habits of self-indulgence and personal ease, there is almost necessarily a spirit of insubordination, of restlessness, under the restraints of law. This spirit, thus growing out of our political condition, is strengthened by the lawless manner of youthful training itself, the result of our peculiar social condition, a manner involving the reversal of the order of nature, and likewise by that absence of all reverence for the past, and general spirit of disloyalty to established principles, and forms the general characteristic of the age throughout the civilized world. Such was not the case in the early period of our government, when the sturdy, self-denying, law-abiding virtues prevailed. But it now manifests itself in all the departments of life, civil, social and religious, presenting every where a condition of affairs most unsafe for successful government, and destructive of the chief conservative element, both of church and state.

In no country will the socialist principle, of an equality of condition as the right of every man, have more chance for ultimate prevalence than in ours. The very equality of political rights guarantied by our civil institutions naturally suggests this notion. The political importance of the lower classes, and the consequent pandering to them of political aspirants, fosters it; and the foreign element of our population, among whom this sentiment, from the reaction of political views, the result of their altered political condition, so generally prevails, contributes to its acceptability and influence. This agrarianism, in some of its specific forms, already has extensive prevalence. Already is the doctrine proclaimed, of the political right of the poor to support from the rich; and already has it been practically embraced in some quarters, by legislative enactments in their behalf in the shape of exemptions, bounties, and other forms of special protection. And even in the high precincts of the National Assembly the doctrine is seized upon for partisan purposes, and practically acted upon, in the recent system it has adopted of extensive appropriations in the form of gifts of the public property of the nation. The danger is, that this principle, thus recognized and favored with all the facilities for growth and expansion our peculiar condition affords, will gradually diffuse itself through the public mind, until, reaching its full limits, it will assume its place as a controlling element in our social condition, and consequently effectually change the whole character of our institutions.

But while the country has much to fear from these evils, especially in their progressive growth, yet to the patriot it is a source of the most heartfelt self-gratulation, that there are still in our happy constitutional provisions, and in the frame-work of our social fabric, elements of a conservative character, in addition to those fundamental causes of our national prosperity already adverted to, most of which are destined still to operate beneficently, that justify the hope of a yet long and glorious future for our country.

The relations of the states to the general government established by the constitution, will, if properly observed, prevent many evils that might otherwise jeopard the perpetuity of the government. Under this arrangement, the sphere of the general government is so restricted, as that it can never become a burden either by invading the rights of particular sections or classes, or by any general system of oppression; while the absence of necessary government functions, which this restriction would otherwise involve, is amply supplied by the powers of the state governments, which, having more immediately a local bearing, leave no interest without its rightful protection. Whatever oppositions of interest or opinion may exist between different sections, this system, properly observed, excludes them entirely from the sphere of the general government. The causes, therefore, which have often rendered other governments oppressive, and led to their overthrow, this system provides against, while, at the same time, it is none the less adequate to fulfil all the purposes which government is designed to subserve.

There will be, without doubt, growing out of the various causes of decay already stated, all of which impinge on the fundamental principle of this system, and likewise out of the contrariety of sectional interests, strong influences existing, tending practically to set aside this cardinal feature of our national constitution; yet there will always exist a strong counteractive tendency in the fact of the clearness in which it stands forth in the written constitution itself, and in the additional fact that there will always be a portion of the country —that is, the weaker portion—whose interest it will be, most firmly, to maintain it.

The doctrine of states rights is, indeed, the great conservative element of our system of government, the balance-wheel by which alone the constitutional adjustments of the system are maintained, and the operations of government so restrained, as to be incapable of working change in our institutions. Securing the great principle of concurrent majorities, so necessary to wholesome restraints upon the powers of government, it is the only protection to minorities against sectional aggression and tyranny.

The vastness of our territorial extent will be exceedingly favorable to our national permanence. The dangerous increase of responsibilities, and the general unwieldiness that might be supposed to result, are obviated by the division of this vast territory into separate states, by which the business of local legislation is thrown upon local legislatures, while the general government has jurisdiction only over those general interests which, as they are common to all sections, are comparatively few and free from all the necessary causes of dangerous collisions. Indeed, this increase in the diversity of sectional interests, and consequent multiplication of concurrent majorities, by increasing the number of checks and balances in the operations of the government, is, in itself, a powerful safeguard to national permanence and prosperity.

A dense population is one of the greatest evils a republican government has to fear. It is only in such population that social evil has opportunities to propagate itself to any fearful extent. Ultraism and humbuggery flourish nowhere else. The collision of interests, the result of this multiplication of the points of contact between men, originate and present facilities for the indulgence of criminal passions and purposes from which sparser populations are comparatively free. Dense populations always present a larger class who are seeking to live by fraud, and without legitimate employment, and among whom are to be found the worst elements of discontent and insubordination.

Indeed, all elements of mischief having, by the opportunities of combination and concert, afforded greater facilities for development and propagation, are more to be dreaded in this condition of society. These evils, incident to a dense population everywhere, will be necessarily felt to a greater extent under the relaxed, indulgent system of a republican government. Indeed, since the execution of law under this system is dependent more upon public opinion than the intrinsic authority of law, it is easy to see that these evils, in many communities, might be free to develop themselves without restraint.

But from this unhappy condition of society, which has been the bone of the strongest governments, and which is so illy suited to ours, the ample extent of our territory must continue to relieve us. Men will not submit to the inconveniences of a crowded population, when the opportunities for less restricted situations are abundantly afforded. They will disperse into ampler fields, where, free from the vices and the excitements of an unhappy social state, they will enjoy ample facilities for the improvement of their own condition, and the cultivation of the virtues of upright, useful citizens.

The vast extent of our territory will still further contribute to our national prosperity, in that it will continue to furnish, to the largest possible extent, all the natural advantages for easy living. A country that affords the means of easy living, of rapid improvement in individual and social condition, need not apprehend danger to the government from the people. Happy themselves, and buoyant with hope, they are content with the government. They are its friends and supporters. This is particularly true, when, from the nature of the country, the agricultural interest preserves its just predominance; since, while in this state of things the country is relieved from real dependence upon foreign powers, and consequently from all those entangling, exciting questions of foreign policy which a dependent state might involve, there is something in the nature of agricultural employments, which, tending to isolate and to individualize, frees from the distracting, demoralizing influences of an intensely social life, and cultivates those sturdy, substantial qualities, that native force and strength of character, the proper foundation of a stable republic. These abundant external resources invite the attention away from the imaginary evils of the social state, forestall those demands for protection from government which in other countries it is thought to be its prerogative to bestow, and relieving it thereby from the clamors of corrupt selfishness and restless discontent, free it from those dreaded sources of danger.

This vast extent of country, multiplying and diversifying the resources of the country, increases its independence of other countries, augments its power, enlarges the sphere of social improvement and enjoyment, elevates and expands the individual as well as the national mind, and in every way widens the basis of national permanence and progress.

The purposes which the Almighty evidently designs to subserve, through the instrumentality of the American nation, authorizes a confident belief that it is yet destined to a long and increasingly glorious career. Brought into existence just at that period when the world had begun to rise to that intellectual and moral eminence, and to enjoy, through the widening range of commerce and enterprise, guided by science and well-regulated intelligence, that extended intercourse between the various portions of the earth which would give to a great and prosperous nation the utmost facilities for impressing itself upon the world; starting with a population uncommonly free from the errors of former and elsewhere prevailing systems, and which has developed, in every step of its career, the elements both of mind and heart most approved of Heaven, and best calculated to supply the demands of human progress; occupying a geographical position with reference to the nations of the earth, which the condition of the rest of the world would naturally indicate as most favorable to adjust its capacities of usefulness to the wants of mankind—the indications are unmistakable, that the providence of God has marked out for our nation a career of usefulness as broad and as grand as the interests of the world, and whose duration, therefore, must be commensurate with the magnitude of these appointed results.

Here, in this favored land, is to be illustrated in living, actual example, those benign institutions of civil government which give freedom and elevation to man; that system of religion, which, coming directly from God, brings the individual man in direct relationship to his Maker; teaches him the whole range of his responsibilities, and invests him with the efficient motives for their successful performance, and that intellectual emancipation in which the mind, untrammelled in its aspirations, is urged by all the power of its own spontaneous activity, and the encouragements of enticing reward to every field of inquiry and improvement. The world around us is struggling for freedom from intellectual and physical shackles, that it, too, may enter upon this high and glorious estate. It is not by actual interference that we are to assist in this struggle. It is not physical, but intellectual and moral aid, which the world in the present crisis demands. These are the weapons by which alone advancing nations can secure their preparation for, and successfully assert their claim to, the glorious emancipation we enjoy. It is, then, by our own brilliant example, standing out, as it does, midway the world, and offering conspicuously to the gaze of surrounding nations the glorious exhibition, and the hope of a higher, happier state, that we are to secure to the world the redemption they need, and to usher in the era of happiness to universal man. This, then, is the mission to which Providence has assigned the American nation, and this is the mission which, even now, it is most gloriously fulfilling.

May we not hope that our national existence is destined to a continuance as long as the duration of this field of usefulness; and that its power and glory will ever correspond with the increasing extent and grandeur of the world's susceptibilities of elevation and improvement.

The relative position of the United States to the nations south and west of her, which embrace the largest portion of the inhabitants of the globe, point her out as destined to effect the most important and permanent results in the history of the world. It was in the East that civilization first began. Gradually it has extended itself westward, but always developing itself in each step of its progress in ampler proportions and brighter light, until at last, in noontide splendor, it has displayed itself upon the American continent. But in every case it has been by colonization, and the consequent amalgamation of races, by which the aboriginal race was supplanted, that this western march of an increasing civilization has been realized. The capabilities of improvement in any race are circumscribed by definite limits. And if the regions of South America, of the Pacific Isles, and of the vast continent of Asia, are destined to become the seats of a civilization higher than any now enjoyed, which, as an inference from the general course of its progress hitherto, and the apparent design of Providence, seems quite certain, it must be by the infusion of elements, both of race and of knowledge, the offspring of a people and of a civilization elsewhere existing. The relative position of the United States to these vast regions designate her as the instrument by which these conditions of this advancing civilization are to be fulfilled. Already has she, by a rapid course of colonization, supplanted the inferior race of her recently acquired Pacific territories, and with one rapid bound extended the western limit of her own noble race and civilization to the very shores of the Pacific. Thus even now is she brought into immediate contact with Mexico, South America, the Isles of the Pacific, and even Asia herself. It is not difficult to perceive that a people, so active and enterprising as ours, with all the facilities for immigration and colonization in respect of these regions—which an increasing commerce and a widening international intercourse, promoted by the remarkable improvements which the modes of transit of later times will secure, will not be long in spreading in the midst of these regions. But wherever they go, this inferior native population, as the result of amalgamation, and that great law of contact between a higher and a lower race, by which the latter gives place to the former, must be gradually supplanted, and its place occupied by this highest of races.

It is highly probable, therefore, that in the revolution of years the descendants of the American people, still higher elevated in the scale of being, and possessing the vast treasures of a glorious civilization, and the blessings of a saving Christianity, will occupy the entire extent of America, the rich and fertile plains of Asia, together with the intermediate isles of the sea, in fulfilment of the great purpose of heaven, of the ultimate enlightenment of the whole earth, and the gradual elevation of man to the dignity and glory of the promised millenial day. Results so far reaching and grand, require for their realization a lapse of time, and an extent and grandeur of means that bespeak for our country a yet long and glorious career.

A country so abounding in all the elements of permanence and prosperity, so elevated by the dignity and grandeur of the objects to the realization of which it is committed, and yet containing in itself so many of the seeds of decay, must devolve upon its citizens the most high and sacred duties.

In those countries where the responsibilities of government are confined to certain classes, that part of the population excluded from those classes being without power to impress themselves upon the government, may be excused from the duty of familiarizing themselves with its principles and operations. But in our country, where every man may exercise an efficient agency in the machinery of government, and where the entire sovereignty is but the aggregation of the individual sovereigns which compose it, the obligation to study the constitution of the country and the proper modes of its just administration, presses with the utmost sacredness upon every freeman. It is not enough that American citizens should have a mere superficial acquaintance with the general character of the government and the history and interests of parties, such as may be derived from the common newspapers and political speeches of the day; such knowledge both misleads and renders its possessor the more susceptible of delusion by the ambitious. But the constitution itself should be read and studied by every one for himself; its principles, and their mutual relations as a regular system, should be clearly apprehended; and the history of the application and the operation of those principles, as exhibited in the entire history of the administration of the government, should be the object of constant attention and inquiry; so that every man, not depending upon others for direction in his political sentiments and action, should be able to determine for himself intelligently, by reference to the fundamental principles involved, all questions in the solution of which he as an American citizen is interested. Such a course is necessary to elevate the masses above the delusions of the designing, and to secure to every man those high qualifications of intelligence and statesmanship which the theory of the government both presupposes and demands. No American should be without a printed copy of the constitution of his country; and, as the great chart of his liberties and immunities, it should be the text-book of his constant reference and study.

That independence of judgment and of conduct, which holds well settled opinions of the constitution and political policy paramount to the interests of party and the claims of men, is the essential quality of true American patriotism. Without it, the individual man is so hampered and restrained, as to be incapable of that enlarged and symmetrical development and progress which our wise and liberal system of government is so well calculated to secure. Without it, our government, instead of being the expression of the people's will, will be in effect but an oligarchy, the instrument of the ambition of bold aspirants. Without it, indeed, the constitution itself will cease to be the political directory, and only referred to and used as an auxiliary to power and influence.

An enlightened public spirit, which seeks to make the country prosperous and happy, by the development of its resources and the multiplication of its conveniences and enjoyments, it is the sacred duty of every American citizen to maintain. Such a spirit, thus practically exercised, necessarily promotes the well-being of every citizen directly, and likewise indirectly by that security and permanence which the general support of such interest necessarily secures to the whole nation. Enterprises designed to forward the interests of Christianity, of public education, of commercial and industrial pursuits generally, on a scale of the highest magnificence, embracing the claims of the far-reaching future as well as the wants of the present, should engage the attention and co-operation of every free American.

Finally. Recognizing the existence of a great superintending Providence, which guards and directs the interests of nations, and especially of one so evidently designed to compass the grandest results of usefulness in the world's history as is ours, every American should not only, by an enlightened consultation of the providential bearings of the nation, seek to conform his own course of action to them, but, if he be a praying man, should constantly hold the vast interests of the nation before the throne of Divine grace, and secure, by the power of his own personal interest there, the protection and guidance of the Almighty in the onward destiny of our beloved Republic.

Thus, blessed with such glorious elements within, and surrounded by such favorable circumstances without, the hearts of the American people may justly swell with triumphant anticipations of the increasing power, prosperity and usefulness of the nation.

ART. VI.—HISTORICAL AND STATISTICAL COLLECTIONS OF LOUISIANA.

THE PARISH OF CATAHOULA—(*Concluded.*)—BIRDS—FISHES—AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTIONS—EARLY STEAM NAVIGATION IN LOUISIANA—LEVEES—RELIGION—EDUCATION—VITAL STATISTICS—BIOGRAPHY—CHIEF TOWNS.

BIRDS.—Having disposed of the animals, we will next notice a few birds which are not very common in this section of country; and the statements here made are entirely from observations made by others. *Ravens*, of a large size, found in the vicinity of Catahoula Lake, said to be as large as the carrion-crow. *Jackdaw*, in same place. *Paroquets* were once quite numerous, but of late they are only found in remote places. *Whip-po-wils*, of two kinds, designated by the names of Spanish and American. The former is larger and more clumsy in its make, and brown all over; the cry of this kind is "*chick-will's-widow*;" these also rear their young here. The latter, or American, is of a more comely appearance, brown on the back, with some white feathers in the wings; they migrate northward, and their cry is "*Whip-po-wil.*" It is probable that these may be only the differences between the males and females. *Goldfinch*, a small bird, with dove-colored back and yellow breast and belly, rear their young here. *Cormorants* or *Corvorants*, of two kinds. *Wild Geese*, of two kinds. The reader is referred to the report from Concordia for other kinds of birds.

FISHES.—The only kinds peculiar to these waters is the *Toad Fish*, which is found in Catahoula Lake, and bear a striking resemblance to the *Stingaree*, having a flat circular body, large eyes, close together, and having a tail and feet resembling the Tadpole in its transition state. The *Pike* is found plentifully in the creeks of the pine hills. The *Trout* is very numerous in same place. No streams furnish better fishing than those in the pine hills. Hundreds have been caught in a few hours with hook and line, while with the *drop-net*, many bushels have been secured in a very short space of time. Fishing parties and pic-nic parties afford great amusement in the summer months, when the citizens from the swamp resort there to enjoy the delightful breezes and spring water, which are so cheering and healthful. While the lake is full, the fish in the creeks do not bite so well; in fact, that is the season when they are "not at home," but far away, roaming the lake and deep waters; but when the water is falling, they resort in countless thousands to the cool creeks, where they are caught in great numbers, and can be seen in the transparent waters in immense schools, ready to seize the bated hook.

Agricultural Productions.—Under this head, *Cotton* takes the first rank. This was raised in small patches by the earliest settlers in 1796, or earlier; but at that time there was no such thing as a cotton gin in existence, and the few pounds of the staple raised were spun by the females in the family, and woven for home use; and if we of the present day could see some of the fabrics of these industrious pioneers, we would be astonished at their proficiency, and blush at our own idleness and supineness. Then, the thrifty housewife was skilled in all the arts of dyeing and coloring, in all the subtle mixing and combining of shades and tints which now are left to the foreign manufacturer. Then, nearly every article of dress and bedding was made at home, and even the floor was carpeted with the thick, comfortable rag-carpet, made by sewing scraps together in long strings, which were rolled into immense balls, and served as the filling for the strong warp, which would last for years, even with constant use. Then, the cheerful hum of the spinning-wheel, the laughing sound of the cotton cards, and clattering thump of the busy loom, accompanied by the merry song of the pretty maid, or more sedate matron, all betokened contentment and independence. Well do we remember those days long since past, never, never to return! Then, we were called from our childish sports to "fill quills" and "hand threads in the harness," sometimes to keep a little slow fire on an oven lid under the warp, of a damp day, so as to keep the sizing dry. Then, again, to pick burs out of the wool, or help wash the cotton and form it into cakes "to make me a shirt," or fill the large greedy spools of warp which seemed as though they never would "get full." Again, the broaches had to be hanked, or reeled, and glad were we to hear the old clock reel begin to screech the premonitory sound before the cheering *clack* would warn us to tie the *cut*. All these things are as familiar as the scenes of yesterday; and with all those toils standing out boldly before us, still often, very often, the words come unbidden to the lips—

"Oh, would I were a boy again!"

But we are wandering in the mazy paths of childhood—in that far-off dream-land where poets love to roam—but must hasten back to the stern reality of our subject, which is the culture of cotton—a theme which has caused the shedding of as much blood, sweat and ink, as any other which has existed for only fifty years. In the time we speak of, i. e., the few last years of the past century, and upwards, to about 1810, the *black seed* cotton was the only kind raised here, or, in fact, any where in our country. This was not so productive as the Tennessee *green seed*, which came into use about this latter date. Negroes could not pick more than one hundred pounds of the *black seed* cotton; it grew very large on the rich lands, and the bolls were apt to rot before opening; and besides all, the yield of lint was very small to the amount of gross weight. The common way of planting them was in checkers, or hills, about four feet one way, and a foot and a half or two feet the other, and even then the limbs would interlock. The little *green seed* was harder to pick than the black seed, and also harder to gin on the roller, or saw gin either.

We give here an extract from the Cotton Book of G. W. Lovelace for October, 1817, when he raised the green seed cotton. He was a good thrifty planter in his time, and had some choice negroes; and here now is a specimen of their day's pickings for one week:

	Mon.	Tues.	Wed'y.	Thurs.	Fri.	Sat.	Totals.
Sally	57	49	58	51	52	58	325
Bill	66	55	56	59	58	57	351
Charles	46	45	48	54	55	62	310
Elsy	31	37	26	28	31	39	192
Nancy	42	49	54	53	42	52	293
Dave	19	20	18	22	27	23	129
Harry	68	68	44	69	78	78	405
Joe	34	41	50	51	49	52	277
Lewis	23	38	34	33	44	43	215

On looking over the same book for the month of December, when the weather was colder, there is a proportional falling off in the picking. Probably if those same negroes could now be put in our cotton fields, they would pick as much as our best negroes; whereas, here we see that the best picker, in a whole week, got only as much as thousands of negroes now can pick in one day. The cotton was grown on the rich bluff lands of Sicily Island, and was as good as any then in the world.

In early times it was a very common, in fact, the prevailing practice, for heads of families to make the children all assemble around the fire-place at night; and each one had his task to do of picking out the seeds of the cotton for the purpose of getting it to spin, as this kind was much better to spin than that which run through the roller gin, or even the saw gin of more moderate date. The usual task for a lad to pick, between supper and bed-time, was as much as could be crammed into a pint tin cup. One old gentleman showed me his blackened and cracked thumb-nails, and assured me that it was caused from picking seeds out of cotton when a boy.

Indigo was raised in those days in considerable quantities, but only for domestic purposes, and not as an article of commerce.

Wheat was raised also at one time in much greater abundance than now. Mr. Anguish Buie raised largely every year, and ground it on the common corn mill-stones then in use, which were turned with a staff by hand.

Tobacco was raised in much greater quantities then than now, and put up in what was called *carots* of about four pounds weight, which sold for a dollar. These carots bear some resemblance in shape to a huge segar; and are frequently seen now amongst the French population of our state. Col. Hooper, of Rapides, has all along raised tobacco in the pine hills on Big Creek, and makes many thousand segars annually.

Rice has always been a constant product here, in small quantities, for domestic consumption, and invariably makes a fair yield. The red rice is said to yield very well on bottom land and what is called "craw-fish land."

Rye also does well here, but is not much cultivated.

Flax was raised in considerable quantities before cotton, and cotton fabrics superseded it. Some of the settlers on the island made a good deal of it.

In speaking of cotton, it should have been stated that during the past spring and summer, the *cut-worms* were very bad on the island. Mr.

Clark, who lives at the head of the lake, assured me, that in one week, with ten hands, he picked up off and scratched out of the ground, 36,000 cut-worms, as he counted each hand's pickings himself. The manager on Dr. H. J. Peck's place, said he picked up 43 of these worms himself from under one single cotton stalk in the month of June. They injured the cotton crops there very much. Col. W. M. Tew says, that the disease called the *rust*, appeared in one particular spot, in a cotton field of his, in the summers of 1846, 1849 and 1851; although, in the intermediate years, corn was planted in the same field. It always makes its appearance at that one place first, and then seems to spread from that and appear in other places. He wishes for some light on the subject. There is one thing that attracted the attention of many in the growing of this year's cotton crop, which was the fact, that on the lands which lay fallow after the subsidence of the high water, and were not broken up till in the spring, the cotton was small, and never grew off like that which was planted on land which had been worked last year after the water went off. The difference was perceptible to the most careless observer, even the very row pointing out the line of demarkation.

COTTON GINS. Before the invention of the saw gin, the people used the little roller gin, consisting of two upright pieces in which two horizontal cylinders were fixed and turned by a crank, which was worked by hand, or by means of a strap and paddle moved by the foot; the first named cost $3, the latter $5. Mr. Elias Carter made a great many of them.* These required two hands to attend them, or sometimes three, viz: one to turn the crank, one to feed, and one to stand behind with a sack or basket and pull away the lint. It is surprising to think how soon the saw gin was brought into use here, after its first invention. The first saw gin and gin house in the parish was put up for John Henry, on what is now known as the Troy place, at the mouth of Little River, about four hundred yards up from the junction of the two rivers. The *exact* date of its building cannot be ascertained, but it was 1804 or 5; nor can the names of the mechanics be ascertained, but it is hoped that these facts may come to light. This gin, was very small and light, requiring only one small horse to turn it. Cotton was brought to it from Catahoula and Bœuff prairies, and it was quite an object of attraction and amazement. A gentleman assured me that he was there to see it in 1808 when he was but a lad, and on entering the door of the gin, the brush-minder, who was a stout Irishman, came rushing out towards him all covered over with the downy lint. Mistaking him for some portion of the machinery, he turned to make his escape from such impending danger, when he caught sight of the features of the smiling paddy, who was enjoying the sensation he was producing upon the frightened boy.

The next gin was put up for Edward Lovelace on Sicily Island, at the head of Lake Looah, in 1807. He and his brother got out the house timbers and did most of the work in framing, covering, &c., which was attended with a great deal of trouble, as they had only a few oxen (three yokes) to haul the timbers, and lacked many other things. At that time, iron cost a great deal, and most of the nails used were wrought out on the anvil. They were nearly two years building the house and getting the machinery completed. Shadrach Taylor made the running gear and the wood work of the gin-stand; while James Wright made the saws and all the iron work. This gin had fifty saws, and *every part* of it was made there on the ground by these two workmen. There was great joy and rejoicing when it was all completed and set in motion. This gin stood for many years and ginned for all the country round. Cotton was taken to it from Catahoula and Bœuff prairies by boats, even as late as 1835.* Up to 1810 it was the only gin in the country that was kept in constant repair, for that of Henry's was frequently out of fix, and even in 1812–13, was abandoned. In 1810, the cotton book of Lovelace shows the entire crop of the country around was only 243 bales; in 1811, 249 bales; in 1812, 231 bales.† After that, their ginnings diminished, owing to other gins being erected. They furnished their customers with bagging, rope and twine, and often shipped the cotton in their own name, rendering an account of the proceeds to them. They had a full store at the same time, and did nearly all the business in the country. James Stokes built a gin in the town of Harrisonburg, in 1813, which was burnt down by an incendiary in 1819.

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* Mr. E. C. also made looms for the people. For a full framed loom he charged $10, while for one which was fastened up to the side of the house, and not made out in full, he only charged $7. Judge Taliaferro tells an anecdote of Mrs. Carter, the wife of the gentleman here spoken of. She had a large quantity of wool which was full of burs and very hard to clean; she thought a great deal about it, as she was anxious to put a piece of cloth in the loom. One night she *dreamed* about it, and dreamed that she could clean out the burs by running the wool through the roller gin. Next morning the first thing she did after rising, was to test the practicability of her dream, when she was gratified by finding it come up to her most sanguine wishes. It became generally known and practised by all her neighbors. It is well known that wool may be easily cleaned this way in the saw gin.

The first gin on Little River, after Henry's, was put up for Dr. John McBride Thompson, in 1834, by McClennon and Cornwell; the running gear was made by Peter Row, and it had a Carver stand.

The first gin put up on Black River, in this parish, was for P. D. Mason, in 1837, by Ferrill and McCamish; Peter Row made the running gear, and it had a Carver stand. The house is still standing on the place now owned by J. Metcalf, four miles below Trinity.

The first *water saw-mill* in the parish was built on Hemphill's Creek, in 1806, for Mathew Stone, by James Brownlee. It was about five miles from the bay where Captain G. Spencer's saw-mill now stands. The next was put up where Spencer's mill now is, by Brownlee, Elias Carter and John Clarke, for themselves, in 1808-9. They accidentally found the situation one Sunday evening, and soon bought the land around there from Edward Bullen, without intimating their designs to him, or any one. They went to work under many disadvantages, and soon raised the mill, and set it going.

This is still one of the best mill-sites in all this section of country, and millions of feet of lumber have been made and sold here.

Zacharias Taliaferro built a large double mill on Gray's Creek, in 1816-17, having two pier heads, running two separate sashes, with two saws in each.

The first *steam-engine* was put up on Black River, in 1839, by R. C. Martin and Henry Shriver, running two saws and a set of mill-stones. This mill, or the machinery, was moved, in 1849, into a large house in Trinity, so as to be in a more central place. It is now owned by H. Shriver and John M. Philips. It will cut 30,000 feet per week, without any serious drawback, and the stones *could* grind 250 bushels per day. The whole mill is worth $12,000; it requires 12 hands to work it to advantage, and their hire is $17 per month: one yoke of oxen, valued at $50, and the logs cost $1 25 each; the lumber sells for $12 to $20 per M., according to quality.

Joseph R. Carter had a *tan-yard* in Catahoula prairie as early as 1812. Jacob Lanius had one in 1816, here, near Harrisonburg. Moses McDaniel and Joseph Francis established their tannery here in 1844, and still carry on the business.

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* It was burnt down in 1829, but soon another was put up in its place.

† The entire cotton crop of the Parish in 1849, was 6,608 bales.

Lacey, and Henry Guthrie, and Charles Craig, were *hatters* here from 1810 down to 1820. If a person would furnish either of them with 16 fox-skins, or the same number of raccoon-skins, they would make a hat which would last, with constant wearing, for ten years.

Rezin Bowie put up a whiskey-distillery on the Bayou Bushby in 1803, and made several barrels of whiskey every year for some time. After cotton began to attract attention, he quit the still and raised cotton. The surplus whiskey which he could not dispose of to the neighbors, he generally put on keel-boats and shipped to New-Orleans, or the coast.[*]

The first *steamboat* that ever ran up the Ouachitta River was called the "JAMES MONROE," and was commanded by Captain Nancarrow, in 1819. She was a rough piece of work, and had a mast and sails. She ran from New-Orleans to Harrisonburg in twelve days, and great was the wonder of the people at her astonishing speed, and they congratulated each other upon their being brought so very near to New-Orleans. The "James Monroe" ran on up to what was then called the "Post of Ouachitta," and her advent there created such great excitement, that the whole population made a general grand jubilee; and, as commemorative of the great event, and expressive of their joy on the occasion, they changed the name of their town from "*The Post of Ouachitta*" to that of "MONROE." The second boat up this river was the "*Independence*," in 1820-21, commanded by Captain Rarich. This was the first steamboat that ever ran into Bayou and Lake Looah, which was the same winter, and before the Bayou was cleaned out.

The next boat was the "Leopard," in 1822-3, commanded by Captain Raspellier. This boat was rather an ungainly piece of work, and had a wooden main-shaft. She ran as far as Camden, and made about two trips of a season, and seldom made the distance from New-Orleans up to Harrisonburg in less than twelve days. Some of the old folks say, on her upward trips, they could get out and walk along the bank of the Mississippi River and keep far ahead of her. Sometimes they would get out and dance all night at a French ball on the coast, and mount horses next morning and soon overtake her. About that time there was a good deal of talk and discussion about moving the state-house, or seat of government, and all the members of the legislature, from the different parishes, were proposing to move it to their several sections of the state, when the Hon. J. R. Grymes, in order to ridicule them, proposed that they should charter the "Leopard," and constitute it the *state-house*, and go peddling over the state from parish to parish, so that *all* might have a benefit. Even as late as 1836, there were but two boats in the Ouachitta trade, and they were grumbling on account of the competition, and said the business was overdone. There was much manœuvring in order to secure the Sicily Island business, as it was by far the most profitable. The freights of those days were quite high. Cabin passage to New-Orleans was $30, and $35 coming back. Then, if the nights were dark, or the least squally, they lay by all night.[†] The "Romeo," commanded by Capt. James Manning, first ran up Little River to Capt. G. Spencer's, in 1837. Dr. Keep ran the steamboat "Rock River" up into Catahoula Lake in 1840, and went above Lacroix ferry. This was for the purpose of getting a load of *pine knots* to carry down to the Mississippi River to sell to steamboats. In 1841, Capt. J. M. Philips took the "Hannibal" in the Catahoula Lake above Hane's ferry. Samuel Glenn, Sen., took the steamboat "Art" up to the lake for pine knots, and he may be considered really as the first who embarked in this business in earnest, although he was very unfortunate at it. After him, in 1847–8, Capt. Francis Routh took the steamboat "Ellen" into the lake after pine knots, and has continued at the business up to this time. During the last two years, several boats have been engaged in the business. At the time of the inundation of Concordia and Catahoula in 1850, many persons moved from the swamp to the pine hills of this parish, and engaged in gathering, hauling and piling *pine knots* on the margin of Little River and Catahoula Lake, at every available point. They built temporary houses and shanties, and for some months this portion of the parish presented quite an animated and bustling scene. The most serious drawback was provender for their teams. Many of them united their forces in partnerships.

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[*] The first *brick house* in the parish was built on Sicily Island, near the head of Lake Looah, for Philip J. Hooter, by J. Crawford, in 1835–6.

Judge Taliaferro brought the first *piano-forte* into the parish in 1820. It was made by "George Astor, Cornhill, London; new patent." The wires are stretched on a wooden frame of simple construction. It is not more than twenty-six inches wide, having small legs, and is ornamented with inlaid work of white wood. It cost $300 in Kentucky.

[†] At this time there are, during the winter and spring, as many as thirteen boats in this trade, and the amount of business done on the Washitta is so very considerable, that, during the present fall, while the river has been so low as to prevent shipments, the merchants in New-Orleans have seriously felt the want of the produce. The same remark applies with greater moment concerning the trade of Red River. Freight on cotton bales,

Where the knots were plentiful, they would go with their carts and wagons and load them as they gathered the knots. But the usual practice was to set the men to chopping and splitting, while the women and children piled and corded the knots, and split wood, so as to be convenient to the wagoners. Many of the strongest women also used axes. The whole woods, in some places, presented the appearance of a large, ill-arranged woodyard, where hundreds of stacks and cords of wood and knots could be seen at once. A fair day's work for a hand, was to cut, split and pile three cords; but where the knots were plentiful, and little cutting required, much more could be done. The job of hauling was the most laborious and expensive. The wood was hauled to the yard and thrown down carelessly by the wagoner and his helper; after which, at odd times, other hands were employed in placing it in cord ranks. The boats gave for it then, from $1 to $1 50 per cord, which, in many cases, was paid in groceries and provisions, at pretty round prices, and sometimes "paid on a credit." The landing places also affected the prices. Many others, at the same time, were engaged in the getting out of round logs and square timber. But in all of it, very little money was realized by the laborers. It is the general belief that the shippers of the pine-knots reap all the profits, as they realize a large per centage from the boats on the Mississippi River.

Capt. Cooksey has been engaged for many years on the streams of this parish, navigating with a *horse-boat*, and selling merchandise. Besides him, there are others in the same business, all of whom appear to be making money.

LEVEES.—But little attention was directed to levees in this parish till a few years past. In 1847, some bayous, such as Crockett's on Little River, and other small outlets, were stopped. Others were closed in 1848–49, and 1850. Some action has been taken on the business by the Police Jury, but owing to the conflicting interests of the pine hill and swamp land citizens, it is difficult to adopt a general levee system. During the spring of 1850, the autumn of the same year, and also during this year, there have been several miles of leveeing done on Black and Little Rivers. Major Liddell deserves more credit probably than any other, as he has led the way and urged others to work, both by precept and example. During

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during low water, this past fall, was $1 25; the general price is 75 cents, and sometimes as low as 50 cents, from Trinity. Cabin passage to New-Orleans, generally, $5, sometimes, $6, and the same back.

this year, the town council of Trinity have laid and collected a tax to be appropriated to the leveeing of the town, and already the laborers are on the spot at work.

The high water of 1828 was about four feet above the highest swamp lands of the parish, and about three feet over the lands of Catahoula prairie. The high waters have been thus noted by Judge Taliaferro. The unprecedented high water of 1779 was about four feet higher than 1828. The overflows of 1796, 1815, and 1823, were about the same, and six inches lower than '28. In 1813 it was nine inches lower. In 1809, and 1811, they were not so high, but still did some damage. The high waters of 1811, '13 and '15, caused many of the first settlers on Black and other rivers to leave the country, In 1824 and '26, they were about alike, and some two feet lower than '28. By observing the subsidence of the water for many years, it is found to fall oftener in June than any other month. For further observations on the overflows in the parish, the reader is referred to Dr. E. D. Fenner's Southern Medical Reports for the year 1850, vol 2d, p. 157, *et seq.* The following brief table may be interesting to some; the measurements were made by Major Liddell:—

The water in 1828 was 7 feet 2½ inches higher than in 1840.
" " 12 " 1½ " " 1841.
" " 10 " 8½ " " 1842.
" " 5 " 6½ " " 1844.
" " 6 " 9 " " 1849.
" " 3 " 9 " " 1850.

RELIGION.—The Methodists were the first to preach the faith of Protestants in this section of country. The earliest preacher is said by some to be Rev. Mr. Bowman, while others say that Rev. Randal Gibson and —— Blackman first passed through from Mississippi to Alexandria in 1805, for the purpose of preaching, and laying out a circuit, and selecting suitable places to preach at. Some of the settlers were members of the church, and willingly lent helping hands, and for many years the preachers held forth to their congregations in private houses. Among the names of the early preachers the following are given—Barnes, Griffin, Hennegar, Shaw, Shrock, Harper, John Cotton, Owens and Nalley. Mr. N. was a delicate, feeble man, and traveled on this circuit about 1815. In the winter, while attempting to swim the Hemphill's Creek, up near where Squire Heard now lives, he got very wet, and the cold benumbed him so that he perished on the road-side, where he was found by some of the neighbors. He was decently buried at old Mr. Brown's place, near by; and every preacher since that time who fills his circuit, pays a pilgrimage to the grave of the faithful minister who fell in his harness, and " died at his post."

The most of the church buildings in the parish have been put up by the joint contributions of the people, irrespective of denominational feeling, and are used by any and all ministers in good standing. There are three meeting-houses on Sicily Island, one in Harrisonburg, one in Trinity, two on Little River, and one on Black River, besides some in the pine hills—one being at the Sulphur Springs.

The Baptists have some 11 congregations in the parish, numbering 350 members in all, many of whom are blacks. John Impson was the first Baptist preacher in the parish, about the year 1825. It is said by some, that a Mr. Hill preached here as early as 1810, although he was not ordained till many years after. Rev. John Impson and Rev. Henry Humble constituted the first Baptist Church here, now known as the Catahoula Church, in 1826, there being then only *seven* members. At this time there are five Baptist ministers in the parish, amongst whom are the Rev.

T. A. Routon, and —— Lacy. The church property of this denomination is worth about $3,000.

There are no other sects of religion known as a community, although there are many isolated individuals of various persuasions. Generally the people are moral, the Sabbath is more respected than in many other places where more pretensions are made to morality and enlightenment, and the criminal docket is seldom occupied by any cases.

Education.—The whole number of public schools is thirty. Teachers, twenty-five; students, five hundred and forty-eight; funds raised for public schools by tax, $830; public funds, $3,644. The academy of Mr. J. B. Knapp on Sicily Island is deserving of particular mention. Mr. K. is a native of Ohio, and came to Louisiana some years ago, and was assistant in Mr. Digg's academy in Rapides parish. In 1849 he established his academy here, and had about fifty pupils. The house stands in a retired and most romantic spot, ten miles from Harrisonburg, in the lofty hills of the island, where there is plenty of spring water. The house was built by contribution and the joint labor of the citizens, and is commodious, protected by a veranda on the south side, having a shrubbery in the yard. The course of study embraces all the primary English branches, and at the same time the mathematics and languages usually taught preparatory to a college education. The cost of board and tuition for the year is from $120 to $130. The annual income is about $1,500. Mr. Knapp is principal; Mr. William Reh is teacher of instrumental music and French; and Mrs. Knapp is matron. During the present year there were twenty students in the male, and twenty in the female department. There is no school near here where better facilities are presented for obtaining a good, substantial education.

In 1810 the parish contained 2,000 square miles, and a population of 1,664. At this time there are 1,664 square miles, with a population of 3,569 whites, and 3,416 blacks.

White children under 10 years......	1,325	Bales of cotton made in 1849...	6,608
Natives of the state.................	1,860	Value of real estate "	$1,812,572
State tax of 1849....................	$6,000	" personal "	214,818
Parish "	3,000	Deaths in the year 1849–50.....	177

The different occupations and trades are thus represented:

Planters.......	475	Overseers....	31	Printers....	2	Hunter.....	1	Gunsmiths....	2
Mechanics	30	Blacksmiths ..	7	Seamstress.	1	Silversmith--	1	Tailors.......	9
Teachers......	15	Preachers....	5	Painters....	3	Raftsmen...	4	Lumb. merch..	1
Doctors.........	16	Merchants...	25	Laborers...	3	Cooper.....	1	Baker.........	1
Lawyers.......	7	Wood-chop'rs	16	Peddlers ...	2	Brickmasons	2	Mill-wrights...	4
Tanners.......	2	St. Boat Cap'n	1	Tav'nkeeper	1	Dis't Judge.	1	*Gentleman*...	1
No occupation.	164								

There are 46 over the age of 21 who can neither read nor write—9 of whom are natives of this state. Idiots 7—2 of whom are dumb. There were 31 marriages from June, '49, to June, '50. From 1808, up to 1st December, 1851, there have been 1,102 *marriage licenses* issued.

When the parish was laid off and organized, Benjamin Tennelle was appointed Judge of Probate Court in 1808. Robert Hall succeeded him in 1809. Samuel Lightner succeeded him, and died in December, 1834. J. G. Taliaferro was appointed his successor in 1835, and was in office at the time of the change of the Constitution in 1846.

The first lawyers who practised at this bar were—John McNutt, John Hughes, J. G. Hunter, —— Harmon, —— Low, —— Patterson, —— Overton, —— Robertson, and Isaac Thomas.

PHYSICIANS.—Dr. David Phelps was the first physician, and amongst the earliest settlers, coming here in May, 1807, from Kentucky. He practised medicine forty-one years, and died in Harrisonburg 10th August, 1829, in the 63d year of his age.

Dr. —— Dodridge practised here as early as 1815. Dr. —— Ingersoll practised here about the same time, and was drowned in 1817, in attempting to swim across Turkey Creek, when it was very high and dangerous, owing to heavy rains. Dr. —— Trahern, 1818; Dr. Bojohn, a German, 1820; Dr. Mongin, 1820; Dr. Foster, 1818; Dr. James McBride Thompson, 1819. Dr. T. was a successful practitioner, coming from the State of Georgia.' He died at Columbia, on the Ouachitta, in 1842–3. Dr. —— Sorden, 1823, from Delaware. Dr. Nuttall, from Kentucky, 1825. Dr. H. J. Peck, from Kentucky, 1828. Dr. Clarendon Peck, from Kentucky, 1835, died on the Island, August, 1837, much regretted. Dr. P. was an enthusiastic botanist, and devoted much of his time and labor to the investigation of the indigenous botany of this country.

BIOGRAPHY.—Having thus disposed of the various subjects presented for consideration, we will now draw this paper to a close, by giving brief outlines of the lives of some of the citizens of this parish, and would beg the indulgence of the reader for the very meagre sketches, as in most cases the information had to be obtained from others who were not familiar with the persons here mentioned.

General PHILIP CALDWELL came from Kentucky at an early day, and had been a member of the Legislature in that state. He was a member of our Legislature from 1809 to 1822, without any interruption. He enlisted, organized, and commanded a company, and hastened to the assistance of General Jackson at New-Orleans, in 1815, but arrived there after the victory. He was a man of strong mind, and entered upon the discharge of every duty with a great deal of energy and enthusiasm. The parish of Caldwell was named in honor of him.

JAMES BOWIE was mostly raised in this parish, although he was born in Burke county, Georgia. His father's name was Rezin Bowie, and was from Maryland; he settled on the Bushby, about ten miles south-west from Harrisonburg, in 1802. His wife was a pious and most excellent lady, and although Mr. B. was a man of strong mind and sound judgment, yet it is thought that the children inherited their versatility and remarkable intellectual energies from their mother. The family consisted of five sons; their names, in regular succession as to age, were John J., David, *James*, Rezin and Stephen; there was no daughter. They were all large, muscular men.

The opportunities for education here at that time were limited, so that they did not receive that culture which was calculated to develop and cherish their mental faculties to the extent they were capable of. All of them were passionately fond of the chase, and all the wild sports of a frontier forest life. In 1817-18, they removed to Opelousas.

At one time James Bowie, with ten hardy companions, was in Texas, and was there attacked by about 200 Indians, but the party managed to defend themselves against this fearful odds, and finally reached the white settlements in safety. On the 19th September, 1827, he was engaged in a duel with Norris Wright, and others, on a bar of the Mississippi River, near Natchez. This was one of the bloodiest duels perhaps ever fought, and in which B. was severely wounded and two men were killed. He, there, and on many similar occasions, evinced that coolness and courage so peculiar to him, and which ever characterized him, even in his last hour, at the storming of the Alamo, where his eventful life was brought to an honorable and glorious termination.*

William Layland, a Revolutionary soldier, now living on Sicily Island, ten miles from Harrisonburg, was born in Berkeley county, Va., near Slinker's Gap, on the Shenandoah River, 3d May, 1742. His parents were from New-Jersey, of the upper Freehold; his mother's maiden name was Sarah Ellison. In 1773, there was so much agitation and excitement amongst the people and dread of the savages, that his parents returned from Virginia to New-Jersey, in the neighborhood whence they had migrated.

We will here narrate the occurrences of the life of Mr. Layland, pretty much in his own language, and we will see how well it accords with history, for some persons are incredulous on the subject, simply because from his great temperance and prudence, he does not show such extreme debility and decrepitude as is often evinced by persons many years his juniors.

In 1776, he enlisted as a volunteer in the continental service, and the first engagement in which he took a part was called *Morris' Battle*. The first officer under whom he enlisted was Morgan, the captain of a company of riflemen from Virginia. He was at the battle of Trenton, under the general-in-chief. He was with the army in the winter of 1777, when encamped at Valley Forge, and says, that General Washington had all the soldiers inoculated. He was engaged in the battle of Monmouth, 29th June, 1778, and in a skirmish at Whitemarsh. He was with General Anthony Wayne at the storming of Stoney Point, on the 15th July, 1779. In this engagement, he states, that the general was directed to choose his men, as the service was considered hazardous. They attacked the place in the night, which was a very dark, cold, cloudy and drizzly one. They proceeded with so much caution and secrecy, that they were on the sentinels before they knew it, and the first one they seized and made him pilot them through the fort. They found the officers up in a three-story building, and when they were summoned to surrender, they demanded upon what authority, when the Americans quickly answered, "By the authority of Jesus Christ and the Continental Congress!" In this affair, Mr. L. was thrown from a ladder and fell amongst some stones and shells, which hurt him badly for awhile, but did not disable him from duty.

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* Dr. James Holliday, who now practises his profession in Harrisonburg, is worthy of mention in this place. He was born in Virginia, in 1786, where he was reared and educated, completing his medical education in the University of Pennsylvania. He has been practising medicine for forty years, the last sixteen of them in Mississippi and this state. He settled here in 1839, and for the space of ten years has devoted a large share of his time to the study and investigation of the geology and mineralogy of the parish, as has been elsewhere mentioned. With the Doctor's permission, the following interesting and very touching anecdote of one of his ancestors is added, with a short explanatory note of his own.

"*A Singular Story*.—A correspondent of the Baltimore Sun writes the following to that paper: 'The recent decease of the Rev. John M. Duncan, in your city, revives an interesting incident in his early life. On her passage from Ireland, the vessel in which young John and his family were passengers, was cast away. For some time all on board were threatened with death by famine. At length lots were cast for a human victim, to appease the pangs of hunger. The lot fell upon the venerable grandmother of that noble boy—Mrs. Margaret Duncan. Unwilling to resort to such a horrid remedy, the ship's company resolved to postpone the dreadful death a few hours. The hopeless period again arrived, when lots were again cast for a sacrifice of life—again the lot fell upon the same lady. By common consent another respite was granted, and by perfect agreement a third time the same ordeal was to be passed. Strange to tell—the third time that aged lady was doomed to die. A brief space of time being allowed for preparation, the poor woman, perfectly resigned to her fate, made one vow unto the Lord, that if he would avert the pending blow, and in mercy save the ship's company, she would consecrate herself more fully to His service—would, on their arrival at any port, erect a temple in honor of His name, and educate and qualify, so far as in her power, her grandson, John M. Duncan, for the ministry of the gospel; that prayer was probably heard—for, as the lady appeared on the deck to render up her life, a voice from aloft announced the welcome tidings—'Sail ho!' A vessel hove in sight, came to their relief, and in safety they all reached Philadelphia. In that city, the venerable grandmother promptly performed her vows. She became a more devoted Christian; she erected the handsome church-edifice which there bears her name to this day—and her grandson, educated and qualified for the sacred office, spent a long life of piety and usefulness, and then surrendered his happy spirit, surrounded by numerous affectionate friends.'"

"The undersigned can vouch for the correctness of the above, with the exception that the Rev. John Mason Duncan did not cross the Atlantic with his grandmother, Mrs. Margaret Duncan, as he was born in the city of Philadelphia many years after her settlement there. The father of Rev. J. M. Duncun was Robert Duncan, Esq., formerly Mayor of Philadelphia. The late Rev. Dr. Mason, of the city of New-York, was Mrs. Duncan's son-in-law. The late Hon. Isaac McKim, formerly Member of Congress from Baltimore, was her grandson, and the undersigned her great-grandson. The church alluded to stands on Thirteenth-street, near Market-street.

"James Holliday."

Late in 1781, word was brought into camp where he was, that the Eastern Division of the army was discharged, and they were disbanded without any clothes or pay, and allowed to make their way home as they best could. In passing through the country, the people often laughed at the shabby appearance of the soldiers, and jeered them, calling them "lousy rogues;" would not allow them to come into their houses, but made a great outcry, as if afraid they would be robbed. This conduct hurt him more than the hardships of Valley Forge, or any bodily injury sustained on the field of battle. But after all this, he was not dissatisfied with the soldier's life; so in 1792, he again enlisted under General Wayne, on the 13th May, to go against the Shawnee and other tribes of Indians; his captain was John Cummings, his lieutenant was named Hall, and the term of enlistment was three years. He joined the grand army of the West at Pittsburg, marched to Cincinnati, and thence to Greenville, where they remained inactive for some time, when his company, with others, numbering three hundred, were sent as an escort with ammunition, provisions, &c., in wagons, to Fort Defiance.

They were five days going, during which time the weather was rainy and unpleasant. When they arrived and delivered the stores to the officers in the fort, they struck camp on the margin of a small creek, and were carelessly engaged in cooking, some sleeping, and others amusing themselves in different ways, while their arms were stacked in the centre. Suddenly they were surrounded and violently attacked by a large body of Indians, who rushed to try and seize the guns, all the time yelling in the most terrific manner, and dealing death-blows all around. The struggle was terrible for a brief space of time, but the Americans overpowered them, and the surviving Indians made a precipitate retreat. There were many women in the fight, who were armed with short clubs, having an iron spike running through, with a hook on one end, while the other was sharp. The Indians carried off their dead comrades, and when they were so heavy that they could not handle them, they cut them up and threw them in bags and carried them off. In this fight, Mr. L. was knocked down into the creek, and lay there insensible for some time, and ever since that, his brain has been impaired, and his mental faculties somewhat enfeebled. When they marched back to Greenville, Dr. Carmichæl, the surgeon, attended him. After this, he was in another escort with stores and ammunition under Col. Hamtramk, from Greenville to Cincinnati; then he went from Cincinnati to Fort Hamilton, which place was under the command of Major Cass, under whom Mr. Layland afterwards served as orderly sergeant. He speaks in the highest terms of Major Cass, as an officer and a gentleman. While here, his three year term of enlistment expired, when he again entered the service under Capt. Pike, at Fort Massac, in his company of riflemen. Shortly after this, Percy Pope came on with orders to pick his men at this fort, in order to proceed down the river to Natchez, and Mr. L. was taken in this expedition, and landed at Natchez 13th May, 1797. They came down in flat-boats, having a great many of them together, presenting quite a formidable appearance, although there really were not more than thirty efficient men on board, as a great many were sick. The boats were loaded with hogs, cattle, corn and provisions. After landing, they erected thirty tents on Liberty Hill, and from the display made, the Spanish officers were impressed with the belief that there was quite an army of them. At this time, there were only two or three decent looking buildings in the town, the Catholic Cathedral being the largest of any, but not very prepossessing. They hewed out and prepared a large and very high flag-staff, which they erected stealthily by night by means of long shears and blocks and tackle, and next day at dawn, when the Spaniards saw the American flag flying aloft, they were struck with fear and astonishment, as they concluded there must be a great many men where so much had been done. The Spanish officers prevaricated, and tried by many arts to baffle the Americans and prevent their getting possession of the country. They hired Mr. Job Routh and Mr. Cushing to haul their cannons and other things down the bluff at night, in order to embark down the river, but failed to get off, when the same gentlemen were hired to haul back their baggage before day again, hoping they had not been detected in their cowardly movements. This was done several nights before they finally departed. Before they left, they threw all kinds of filth into the wells, with the carcasses of animals, and choked them up with rubbish, and it was also thought they had thrown poison into them. The wells stunk so that it was impossible to go into them, or even approach near them.

At this time the army was reduced, and many officers lowered in their grade, or discharged from service, and only those men retained who had enlisted for five years. Major Isaac Guion was chief officer at one time. After Percy Pope left, Capt. John Heath took the command, who was maimed in his right hand, and used only the left. At this time Guion was made pay-master. When Mr. Layland enlisted, he was promised 300 acres of land for his services, but he has never received it yet. He was honorably discharged 13th May, 1798, by his officers, Guion and Heath, both of whom signed a certificate of his good and soldierly conduct.

During all his long service he never indulged in the use of any spirituous liquors, and always had the confidence and friendly regards of his comrades and officers, and was allowed more liberties than many others.

After leaving the U. S. service, he married Miss Elizabeth Swayze, the youngest daughter of Samuel Swayze, near Washington, Adams county, Miss., on the 9th January, 1799, and resided in that county till March, 1835, when he removed to Sicily Island where he now lives. His wife died here on the 9th March, 1837, leaving two daughters and five sons.

Mr. L. is now a good looking man for his age; his complexion is florid, face is full, blue eyes, and has a full suit of gray hair. He converses freely and cheerfully, while there is no appearance of that bodily or mental imbecility which might naturally be looked for in one of his great age. He walks a great deal, and prefers it to riding—he walks every Sabbath to a church near by his house, and last summer walked to Harrisonburg. One of his sons is living with him, and he has a small piece of land and a few slaves who support him comfortably. But for all his services in the army, he has never yet received any pecuniary reward from the government. He says he feels unbounded satisfaction in having acted a part in achieving the liberty of his country, and hopes the present and future generations will not sacrifice it on the shrine of party strife or sectional ambition!

JOHN FAULK settled on the west bank of Black River, about the year 1810, just where Major Liddell now lives. He was soon after overflowed, and, retiring from the swamp, undertook the manufacture of salt on some one of the saline streams emptying into Red River. This was about the commencement of the war of 1812. Mr. F. had succeeded so well with the salt, that he took a boat load down the river, and on arriving at the mouth of Black River, was stopped by a set of lawless desperadoes, probably the Macon gang, who demanded and exacted toll of him before they permitted him to pass with his cargo.

He joined the army of Gen. Jackson in the winter of 1814, and on the night of the 28th December was wounded in the leg in the engagement, and in that condition was found by John Kitterlin, who took him up in his arms (F. being a small man) and removed him within the lines in safety. Mr. Faulk never knew his preserver until 1842, when Mr. Kitterlin stopped at his house on his way up to the land-office at Monroe, to secure his land. While there, upon talking over past events, and recurring to the battle of New-Orleans, the discovery was made of their former opportune meeting, when their delight was mutual, and both brave men clasped hands in life-long friendship. Mr. Faulk now lives, in old age, a wealthy planter on the banks of the Ouachitta, while Mr. Kitterlin has been gathered to his fathers. He resided in this parish many years on Little River, and when he died, left a widow and children.

TOWNS—*Harrisonburg.*—This is the seat of justice of the parish, and is situated on the west bank of the Ouachitta river, at the point where the pine hills are first seen in ascending this stream. The land is subject to inundation, and was under water in 1850. It contains a population of 200 orderly and sociable people.

The first white man who lived here was Jacob Simmons, about 1804–5, but the land was secured by pre-emption and right of occupancy to John Hamberlin, and confirmed to him by the United States land commissioners, in June, 1811. This land was afterwards bought by John Harrison, who came from South Carolina, and who employed Edward Dorsey to lay out and survey the town lots, and draw a map of the same, in the year 1818. The place was selected as the site for the court-house, which was built in 1808, and was only a small hewed-log hut; the next court-house was a frame building, put up in 1819.

Oliver J. Morgan had the first store here in 1809, and also kept the ferry across the river, but there was very little traveling. Robert Nobles built the first frame house in the place, which was burnt down a few years ago, while owned by Truman Phelps. Nobles kept tavern here in 1815. John Crane and William Taylor had a store here in 1813; J. Hamberlin and P. Caldwell, 1816; Richard King, 1816.

The present court-house is a commodious two-story brick building, fifty feet square. It was built in 1843, by D. E. Ross and Edward Bass, and cost nearly $7,000. The first jail was made of hewed logs. The present one was built before the court-house, and is constructed of the yellowish gray sandstone which is so bountifully supplied on the spot, looks well, and answers a very excellent purpose.

There are four stores and two groceries in the place, with an aggregate capital of $25,000. There are two very good hotels in the place. Two physicians—Drs. J. Holliday and W. H. Hanna, the former, also, has a large drug store.

TRINITY.—This village derives its name from its position at the triple confluence of the Tensas, Ouachitta, and Little rivers, and is situated between the two last-named streams. As early as 1804, this place attracted the attention of Dunbar and Hunter, as a highly eligible position, and they predicted that at some future day a large town would certainly spring up here.

A man named Eliphalet Plowden, who had been living on Black River at an early date, settled here in 1818, on the little mound on the bank of the Ouachitta, not far above Capt. J. M. Philips' residence. He lived here many years, and kept a poor kind of entertainment for the few travelers who chanced to pass that way. A very singular though true anecdote is told by the old residents of this man. One of his neighbors named ——— Shammit, a Dutchman, had a wife who did not suit him, from some cause, and he expressed a strong desire to get rid of her. Plowden hearing Shammit speak in this manner, proposed a trade for the wife, and actually bought her from Shammit for one yoke of oxen and a rifle gun, and took her home here, and they lived peaceably together for many years.

Judge T. tells an anecdote of himself, which took place at Plowden's. He was returning from Natchez, where he had been to get some groceries and other supplies, amongst which was a quantity of salt in sacks, and was bringing all home in his skiff. Amongst other things, he had provided himself with a comfortable plaid cloak, which he wore, as it was very cold and rainy. They arrived at Plowden's about dark, and stopped for the night, and on going in, T. put his new cloak on the bannister-rail to drip, but unfortunately the skirt of it had been pretty well saturated with the salt water while sitting in the skiff, and as it was a time of overflow, Plowden had his cows on the mound around the house for safety. T. forgot his cloak till morning, when he began to look for it, and after much fruitless search, he cast his eyes under the house, and there found the *velvet collar* with the chain and clasp, and that was all that the hungry cows had left of his new plaid cloak—they had devoured it.

A man named John Brown lived here many years, and in 1831 he entered the land immediately in the point. James M. Daughters bought the land from Brown about 1836–7, and also entered more adjoining, higher up on the Ouachitta. He employed John Daniels to lay off the land into town lots in 1837, and make a map of the same. Daughters built the first house in the place that year, which was afterwards occupied as a store, by A. S. Barr, and is still standing opposite to the steam saw-mill. Felix Robb had a store on the bank of the Ouachitta, just at the present upper limits of the town, in 1836. In 1837, A. S. Barr and Anderson opened a store here. In 1837, F. Robb began to build what is now known as the Courtad house, on the corner; the lumber for this was partly obtained from mills in the pine woods, and partly sawed by hand, and cost $30 per thousand when delivered on the ground. He also had the two first brick chimneys put up here by Hughes Wilson, but the bricks were very mean, and the job was badly done; the bricks cost $17 50 per thousand.

Mr. Daughters died, and the lands here were bought by ——— Lester, at the public sale of his estate. After the death of Lester, his widow disposed of the property to Rev. W. H. Turnley. Many of the lots, however, had been disposed of previously. In 1848, the remaining lots, amounting to 81, were disposed of by lottery at $10 each, there being no blanks.

At this time the population of Trinity amounts to two hundred, and was greater in 1849, but owing to the cholera and high water of 1850, many persons left. Property has improved very much, and when the levee is completed, which is now being thrown up, no doubt the value will be still more enhanced.

There are four stores and four grocery establishments, two billiard tables and two ten-pin alleys, with an aggregate capital of $35,000. The first drug store was put up by Dr. J. J. Dearing, in 1850. There are two tailor shops, one tavern, and one smith shop. There are three ferries kept at this point which, owing to the immense amount of western emigration, are very profitable.

The first brick house was begun by A. S. Barr, in 1850, and completed in 1851 by M. Gillis, his surviving partner; the brick-work was done by Andrew Beck; the wood-work mostly by Benj. Vaughan; and the entire cost was $3,000.

There is only one church edifice in the place, which was erected by the joint contributions of the whole community. It is a neat frame building, 50x30 feet, with a belfry; was built by Messrs. Stout and Lehman, in 1848.

There are few places in the South possessed of more advantages than Trinity, for an outlay of capital in manufacturing establishments. The communication with New-Orleans is always open the whole year round; the Little River affords a short and easy intercourse with the pine hills for at least four months of the year, where any amount of pine and other timber can be easily and cheaply obtained; while the Ouachitta and Tensas bring down immense rafts of cypress and ash every winter and spring.

When the salt springs shall be properly worked; when the immense mines of iron ore shall pour out their valuable treasures; when the coal beds shall be upheaved, and the immense quarries of sandstone shall be brought into service, and the tar, pitch, and turpentine shall be thrown into market, then Trinity will assume her proper rank and station; then there will be immense cotton factories here; then there will be docks for the repairing and manufacture of steamboats, and her population will be counted by thousands, if not tens of thousands.

ART. VII.—CULTURE AND MANUFACTURE OF SUGAR.*

DESCRIBING AND COMPARING THE DIFFERENT SYSTEMS PURSUED IN THE EAST AND WEST INDIES, THE UNITED STATES, &C., AND THE RELATIVE EXPENSES AND ADVANTAGES ATTENDANT UPON EACH: BEING THE RESULT OF SIXTEEN YEARS' EXPERIENCE AS A SUGAR PLANTER IN THOSE COUNTRIES.

PART I.—HISTORY AND VARIETIES OF SUGAR-CANE.

[The great English work of Wray has been sold at a price that puts it out of the reach of our planters, though a most invaluable guide it would prove to them Scarcely a dozen copies have been taken in Louisiana. We have yielded to the solicitations of many friends, and will re-publish it in this and the next four or five numbers, in short parts, and very small type. It will be interesting in Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama and Texas, as well as in Louisiana.]—ED.

IT is a matter of considerable doubt whether the sugar-cane plant is a native of America or not. Strong opinions have been given as to the improbability of its being so; whilst, on the other hand, many old writers assert with great confidence the fact. And, indeed, viewing these conflicting accounts dispassionately, we must allow that, as the plant was found growing in its utmost luxuriance throughout the islands of the Pacific Ocean by our earliest navigators, it requires no great stretch of imagination to believe that it was also growing on the great continents of America long before it was brought there by the Portuguese and Spaniards. It would not be difficult to adduce many arguments in support of this belief: but I am well aware that such a discussion here would be deemed tedious and irrelevant.

The Chinese assert that sugar has been made from the cane, in China, for upwards of 3,000 years; and, without disputing with "*the flowery nation*" for a few hundred years, more or less, we will at once concede to them their undeniable claim to very great antiquity as sugar manufacturers. But I cannot divest myself of the belief that INDIA—not China—is in reality the country from which the sugar-cane FIRST emanated. Whether such be indeed the case or not, we have now no possible means of deciding; and, moreover, it is a question which no way interests the plain matter-of-fact planter; suffice it, therefore, to say, that it is now found growing in almost every tropical country under the sun.

VARIETIES KNOWN, AND THEIR QUALITIES.—From what I have already seen, I do not hesitate to say, that an endeavor to describe all the different varieties of cane that are known, would be a wearisome, if not a hopeless, task; from which, it is clear to my mind, that no adequate benefit can be derived. Therefore, I will confine myself to a mention of those which have been more prominently brought before me; and amongst them, I think, almost every variety known to the generality of my readers will be found noticed.

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* By Leonard Wray, Esq.

In Jamaica, the varieties common are—the Bourbon, the Otaheite, and Batavian canes.

In Bengal, the yellow and purple ribbon-canes of Otaheite; the Bourbon, or Mauritius; the Singapore (Tibboo Leeut*); the large purple cane of Java; the red cane of Assam; the common, small, hard cane of China; and some ten different kinds of native cane, varying in thickness from one inch and a half, to half an inch in diameter; the very smallest resembling little riding -switches.

In the Straits Settlements of Penang and Province Wellesley, Malacca, and Singapore, the varieties are—the Salangore cane, or, as the Malays term it, Tibboo Cappor; the Tibboo Leeut; the Tibboo Teeloor, or egg cane; the Tibboo Etam, or black cane; the Tibboo Meerah, or red cane; the Tibboo Batavee, or Batavia cane; the Tibboo China, or small China cane; and many others not requiring description.

To give a distinct account of the foregoing canes, I will take them as I have named them, each in succession.

The Bourbon cane.—There does not appear to me to exist any very satisfactory account of the origin of this variety; the opinion generally received is, that it was introduced into the West Indies from the island of *Bourbon*, but came originally from the coast of Malabar, where it was found growing spontaneously. When first discovered, it is stated to have been a small sized, but soft and juicy cane, which was so much affected by the change of climate, soil, and the cultivation it received in Bourbon, that it increased wonderfully in size and richness of juice; so that it was cultivated in preference to the old species, which at length it entirely superseded throughout the island.

From my own experience in Jamaica, I can pronounce it a most valuable cane; but I entertain a strong suspicion that it is in reality no other than the Tibboo Leeut of Singapore, (sometimes called the Otaheite cane,) somewhat altered by change of soil and climate. I have bestowed considerable attention upon it, and have carefully marked the Tibboo Leeut, growing on entirely different soils, in different situations, and under widely different circumstances, and I can come to no other conclusion than that they are identical.

The Otaheite canes are two—the yellow and straw-colored, and the purple-striped or ribbon cane.

The former and the Bourbon are so much alike in all respects, and have become so intermixed on West India estates, that it is a matter of great difficulty to distinguish between them; indeed, I have long been of opinion that they are the same variety of cane. If we remember that the Bourbon was taken to that island, then to Martinique, and afterwards spread in course of time throughout the West India islands; that the Otaheite was taken direct from that island to the West Indies, and direct to Calcutta and the Straits Settlements; that the Tibboo Leeut came from Manilla (evidently from Otaheite originally) to the Straits of Malacca; if we consider these facts, we shall find no cause for astonishment at the very slight difference that exists between them; on the contrary, we must be much struck at the extreme similitude, which even such extraordinary changes have failed to destroy. But let the *three* be collected, and then planted out, under precisely similar circumstances, and I am quite satisfied no man can distinguish the one from the other: at all events, I have no hesitation in owning that I never could—the which has served to convince me that they all came originally from Otaheite.

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* Tibboo, or Tubboo, is the Malay name for sugar-cane.

As I consider them to be the same variety, and as one description serves for the whole, I will therefore treat of them accordingly. With the advantages of a good soil and favorable season, plants of the first year's growth often attain the height of twelve or fourteen feet, measuring six inches in circumference, and with joints eight or nine inches apart. I do not mean to imply that the average size of a field, or of fields, is so large, but that canes may be picked out from amongst them fully as large as that. Such plant canes commonly yield (in Jamaica, Bengal, and the Straits) two and a half tons, and not unfrequently three tons, of marketable sugar per acre. Such an amount of produce per acre is a very common and well known occurrence; but the general calculation among planters is, however, *two tons of dry sugar from each acre* of "plant canes:" that is, canes of the first year's growth. I can see no difference in the yield of this cane in either Indies; for, in good land, the return is generally as above stated.

Planted at proper seasons, as will be treated of hereafter, they often attain maturity in ten months, and very rarely exceed twelve. Under certain circumstances, it may be expedient to allow them even fourteen months—as in excessively rich land, or a wet season; but, of course, these circumstances come more particularly under another head, which will be fully discussed in its proper place.

These canes require a generous soil, careful fencing, and attentive management. Many soils which suit other varieties, are unfit for the proper development of these; whilst it is generally remarked, that they are more sensible of the injuries committed by the trespassing of cattle, sheep, &c., during their early growth, than other descriptions. The foliage of the Otaheite is of a pale green, leaves broad and drooping much; and the plant, on arriving at maturity, frequently arrows, or flowers; which renders it, when in extensive fields, exceedingly graceful and ornamental in appearance.

"The purple striped Otaheite" cane is very much like the ribbon cane of Batavia in appearance: but the former has broad purple stripes, on a greenish yellow ground, whereas the latter is of a blood-red, on a transparent straw-colored ground. It is often called "the Otaheite ribbon cane," in contradistinction to "the ribbon cane of Batavia." Its foliage is of a much darker color than that of the yellow variety, whilst its leaves droop much less. It is a hardy and estimable description of cane, of large size, soft, juicy, and sweet; and yields sugar in equal quantities, though of a rather dark quality.

The Batavian canes, with which I am acquainted, are of four descriptions, viz: the yellow violet; the purple violet, or Java cane; the "transparent," or ribbon cane; and the Tibboo Batavee, or Batavian cane, of the Straits.

"The yellow violet," so denominated in the West Indies, differs from the Bourbon in being smaller, less juicy, considerably harder, of slower growth, and of a foliage much darker and more erect. When ripe, it is usually of a straw-color, its skin or rind is thick, and the pith hard; but its juice is rich and abundant. The yellow violet does not require so rich a soil as the Otaheite, but contents itself with that of an inferior description: this renders it of much importance in planting out large tracts of land, some portions of which may be too poor for its superiors. In Jamaica it is usual, in such places, to plant the violet; thus we often see large patches of it flourishing in the midst of a field of the Bourbon. To an unpracticed observer, this sight would cause much speculation; as its dark green foliage presents a striking contrast to the pale green of its immediate neighbors, and might lead to the conclusion that those dark green patches were occasioned by some greater degree of fertility and moisture existing in those parts; whereas the contrary is, in fact, the case. The sugar manufactured from this cane is of a very fine quality; but considerably less in quantity than the Bourbon. A very common custom of the Jamaica planter is, to mix the yellow violet with Bourbon plant canes, according to proportion, for the purpose of rectifying the juice of the latter, so that burning and other such vexatious occurrences might not arise in boiling.

"The purple violet," or large black cane of Java, is fully as thick as the Otaheite, with joints varying from three to seven inches apart. In height, it is usually about eight or ten feet, with leaves of a lighter green than the "yellow violet." The very upper joints sometimes exhibit faint streaks, becoming imperceptible in the lower joints, which are of the darkest purple color. Very frequently a white resinous film is seen incrusted on the joints of this cane, which, over the rich purple, presents much the same appearance as that peculiar to the finest bloom raisins. Sometimes this resinous crust lies so thick, that the purple of the cane itself is in some joints scarcely perceptible. When in perfection, it yields a very sweet and rich juice. Being very hard, it is difficult to grind, and affords a comparatively small quantity of juice, which is sometimes rather troublesome, from the resinous (or gummy) and coloring matter which it contains It is a very hardy cane, thriving well in poor, dry soils; and in Jamaica it is often planted in the outer rows of the cane fields, to stand the brunt of trespassing cattle, which, browsing along the roads, or breaking through fences, tear and trample down the canes. To other descriptions of cane, these ravages would be very serious indeed; but, fortunately, the purple violet is so hardy, that it quickly recovers from such injuries, and springs up again with astonishing rapidity. It was introduced into the West Indies about the same time as the Bourbon, and is still much cultivated. In the Straits, the Malays term it Tibboo Etam, (*Etam*, black; *Tibboo*, cane,) or black cane, and cultivate it much around their houses, for eating.

"The transparent," or ribbon cane, is much smaller in size than the Otaheite ribbon cane; is of a bright transparent yellow, with a number of blood-red streaks or stripes running the whole length of the stalk, and varying in breadth from a quarter to a full inch; and being very clear withal in its tints, it presents a very pretty appearance. Its leaves are of a green, similar to that of the yellow violet, but more erect. It grows from six to ten feet high, with joints from four to eight inches apart, and four inches in circumference.

"The transparent" is generally planted in light, sandy soils, where no other cane will thrive; sometimes it is planted promiscuously with the yellow violet. Although its rind is thick, and general texture hard, yet it yields a good quantity of juice of excellent quality, which is easily converted into fine fair sugar. Planters often grind this cane, also, with Bourbon plants, for the same reason as applies to the yellow violet.

"The Tibboo Batavee," or Batavian cane, is a cane common in the Straits of Malacca, where it is cultivated by the Malays. In appearance it is much like the yellow violet, except in the peculiarity of its color, which is rather greenish, with a pink shade, in parts; in some of the lower joints this pink color is very bright and pretty, whilst in the *upper*, it is more faint and delicate; the joints are seldom more than from three to six inches apart. In height, size, and foliage, it closely resembles the yellow violet; although it differs from it, in being much softer, more juicy, and less hardy in habit. In a rich soil it is prolific, and rattoons well,—its juice is rich, clarifies easily, and gives a fine sugar: but on the whole, it is inferior to the Otaheite variety, yet requires an equally rich soil.

A description of cane was sent from the Mauritius to Province Wellesley, Penang, under the general name of "the Mauritius cane," and I had several opportunities of seeing it growing, when but young. It is very different from other descriptions of cane I have seen from the Mauritius, and it struck me as being an East Indian cane improved by cultivation.

I have seen only three varieties of large canes on the Continent of India, which are supposed to be peculiar to the country: one is the large red cane of Assam, specimens of which were kindly sent me by Dr. Keith Scott, the Hon. East India Company's civil surgeon, at Gowhatty in Assam. This gentleman had established a sugar estate at Gowhatty, and made sugar; so that he had experience of the right sort, which lends to his opinion considerable weight. In writing of these canes, he says:—"This morning I dispatched, by the Assam Company's tea boat, a couple of red sugar canes for you, requesting the Honorary Secretary of the Company to forward them to you. They are of a description you may not have met with before, very juicy and sweet; the sugar produced from them is of an exceedingly fine grain and good color: they are, moreover, strong in growth, and much less apt to fall over than the Otaheite, to which they are fully equal in size, as well as in quantity and quality of juice. I am also preparing for you some '*flowers*' of this cane, in different stages, which I will dispatch, when quite dried. I have now (January) canes in flower, which were planted last May!!"

So that the canes in flower were only eight months old; consequently they could be cut and manufactured in ten months from the day of being planted. I am sorry to say that two months elapsed before I received these fine canes, by which time they were dead and withered up.

Some time afterwards, Dr. Scott again sent me two boxes, with some pieces of the same cane, *growing;* but unfortunately they did not survive the long and roundabout way by which, through unforeseen occurrences, they were sent.

I subsequently had a long and interesting conversation with my kind and excellent friend, when he repeated all he had before written, and added much more, in praise of this red cane,—from all which I have been led to form a very high opinion of it.

In Lower Bengal, (near Calcutta,) and in the Straits of Malacca, a large red cane abounds, which bears so exact a resemblance to Dr. Scott's Assam cane, that I conceive it to be the same identical variety, somewhat improved in the rich and fertile soil of Assam. It must be remembered that I do not speak positively, as I never had an opportunity of seeing the foliage of the Assam cane.

The red cane of Bengal is a large and fine cane, much used about Calcutta for sugar manufacture; and I have had brought to me by natives, sugar made from it by themselves, (in their own rough and primitive way,) which exhibited a grain of immense size, strength and brilliancy. They, however, say that it is not a good cane for sugar-making, as the juice is very dirty, and the sugar always dark colored. These assertions, however, have no weight with me; for I can easily detect the cause, and know that it can be avoided.

In the first place, the Bengalee cultivator has a plan of tying up the canes of each root closely together, with bands made with twisted cane leaves; so that, as they grow, the resinous substance exuding from the rind, accumulates along the whole length of each cane, turns black, and, together with the excrement of numerous insects, (which harbor and breed in these snug retreats,) make the cane-stalk quite filthy: add to this, the exclusion of air and light, which are necessary to the perfect elaboration of the juices, and I think we need not be surprised at the juice being dirty and difficult to clarify. In the Straits of Malacca I have seen them as clean as other canes, tall, erect and vigorous: but the Chinese say that in grinding, they give out a considerable quantity of coloring matter,—which, by the way, would be of little consequence, did they clarify their cane juice properly, which they do not.

I still, therefore, incline to the opinion, that they are a fine. and under certain circumstances, valuable description of cane. The Malay name is "*Tibboo merah*"—red cane.

The next large canes are the black and the yellow Nepaul canes, which I obtained from the kingdom of Nepaul—four plants of each, growing in boxes. They arrived safely, after a series of adventures, in a fine, healthy condition, giving promise of becoming fine canes: but a long and dangerous illness obliged me to go away for change of air, during which time they were destroyed by goats. They were, however, large sized and fine looking canes, fully equal in appearance to the Assam cane—and my messengers, together with the Nepaulese (in my employ) gave them the very highest character. I regret to say that I never had another opportunity of seeing these varieties again.

As to the small sized canes cultivated in India, they are so numerous that I cannot attempt a description of them : moreover, they are, in comparison with those which have been, and are to be, noticed, so very wretched, that did I not know them to be cultivated, by the prejudiced native, to an immense extent, I should deem them unworthy of being mentioned in any way : as it is, I shall have to treat at large of them when I come to explain the cultivation of the cane in India.

"The *China cane*" was received into the Botanic Garden of Calcutta in 1796, direct from China; having been specially ordered by the Bengal government, at the suggestion of Dr. Roxburgh, who considered it a new species, and named it *Saccharum Sinense*, or Chinese sugar-cane. Writing in 1799, Dr. Roxburgh says, "It has been cultivated with the utmost possible success; many HUNDRED THOUSANDS have been distributed over the country amongst the cultivators of that article." Dr. Royle* writes, "it possessed the advantage of being so hard and solid as to resist the forceps of the white ants and the teeth of the jackal—two great enemies to the East India sugar plantations. It was found, however, too difficult to express the juice with the Bengal sugar mill; but Dr. Roxburgh was of opinion that this might be obviated by introducing the simple, yet powerful, mill of the coast of Coromandel. He further describes the cane as bearing drought much better than the sorts in general cultivation; producing, moreover, a profitable crop, even to the third year; while the common cane of India must be annually renewed. According to the report of Mr. Touchet, the commercial resident at Radnagore, and of Mr. R. Carden, superintendent of the Hon. Company's Sugar Plantation Farm at Mirzapore Culna, "it not only resists the ravages of the white ant and jackal, but yields about double the produce of the common Bengal cane."

Independently of this testimony, which I know to be most correct, I can state my own experience of them; and I cannot better do so than by giving the account, as I wrote it at the time, (about four years and a half ago.) The Chinese cane was supplied me from the Society's Garden, Calcutta, and took upwards of two months coming up by boat; yet it was perfectly fresh and green on its arrival, whilst the other descriptions of cane had all died, or withered away. From the three hundred canes sent me, by cutting them up into pieces of two joints each. I obtained sufficient to plant out a small patch of ground—which this season yielded me so many canes, that by cutting them up as before, I was enabled to plant out about SIX BEGAHS (four acres) of land with them, besides supplying my neighbors with a few. In its nature it is extremely hardy and prolific; for during the last hot season, it remained uninjured in every respect, whilst the others were all either burnt up, or eaten out of the ground by the white ants. As the rains came on, the China canes sprang up wonderfully, many roots having no less than THIRTY shoots; which, by September, had become fine canes, about twelve feet in height, three inches in circumference, and with joints from six to eight inches apart. These were cut in October, and planted out; yet although we had a tolerably severe winter, the cold appeared to have little or no effect in checking their growth; whereas NATIVE CANES, planted at the same time, were ENTIRELY *kept back*. For their extreme hardiness in withstanding heat and cold, white ants, jackals, &c. &c., I myself can vouch; and, moreover, I consider that it is a variety of cane which deserves the attention of the East India sugar planter. Such was my opinion nearly five years ago, and I have had every reason, since that time, to be satisfied of its correctness.

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* See Royle, on the Productive Resources of India, p. 92.

A gentleman in Bengal, largely connected with sugar matters, writing to me on this subject, says, "You may remember that I wrote to you some months ago, soliciting information and advice regarding the "*China cane*," which you gave so good an account of in the *Agr. Hor. Society's Journal*; I have much pleasure in now giving you the result of my experiment.

"As you advised, I wrote to the Society for five hundred canes, which arrived quite fresh. I then cut them up, allowing only ONE JOINT to each piece, and planting them in lines, four feet asunder each way, delivered them up to the same chances as my Otaheite and native canes were exposed to. The result has been beyond my utmost hopes; and this, too, after a season of unusual severity, which has grievously affected my native cane; and as to my OTAHEITE, what with the hot winds, the white ants, the long continued wet weather, and the detestable jackals, I have saved but a very few; whilst nothing seemed to injure or affect the *China cane*. Did you ever know the Otaheite cane-sprouts to be devoured by caterpillars? I forgot to put those depredators in the list of enemies to the Otaheite plant; although they certainly are very formidable ones, as the partial destruction of many of my plants testified. They attacked the plant when only a few inches above the ground, from which many never recovered.

"I understand that INDIGO PLANTS are often quite destroyed in the same way, so perhaps it may not happen again for some years. This hope determines me in trying the Otaheite cane once more; when, if it does not succeed, I shall keep entirely to the China cane: which, by the by, I am now extending, as far as my plants will allow me. I am disgusted with the native cane, and shall soon put them aside altogether."

I think these accounts of the China cane are sufficient to establish the fact of its being a variety well suited to India; although I need not say that it is immeasurably inferior to the Otaheite, wherever that cane can be cultivated successfully. It was introduced into India in 1796, and in 1799 was spreading rapidly all over the country. It is now very common throughout Bengal, although the natives think it a native cane, from its having been so long amongst them. They have given it a native name, which I quite forget. I met it in several places, and recognized it at once; yet I never met but one native who knew it to be otherwise than a native cane. Certainly, its neglected cultivation during fifty odd years in India, has caused it to degenerate very much; hence my advice to all persons desirous of trying it, "Send to the Society's Garden, in Calcutta, for it."

It is a very small sized cane, being rarely more than one inch, or one and a quarter inch in diameter; but it is sweet, and makes fine, fair sugar. The Chinese assert that it is better adapted for sugar-candy making than any other cane.

In the Straits Settlements of Penang and Province Wellesley, Singapore and Malacca, the principal canes are eight in number. Of these, first and foremost, is "the SALANGORE CANE," by the Malays of Province Wellesley termed "tibboo bittong beraboo," (the powdery bark cane,) but by the Malays of Singapore and Malacca, it is named "tibboo cappor," (the chalk cane,) from its having sometimes a considerable quantity of a white resinous substance on the stalk. *This is the* FINEST *description of cane in the Straits Settlements, and* PERHAPS IN THE WHOLE WORLD. In Province Wellesley it is universally cultivated on all the estates, and is only known to those planters as the China cane; from the simple circumstance of the Chinese cultivators in the province having been in the habit of cultivating it for years, before any European embarked in such speculations in those parts.

I have cut as many as five of the larger canes from one stool; each cane from ten to fifteen feet long, without leaves, and seven and a half inches in circumference, (round the *lower* joints): each cane weighed from 17 to 25 pounds. That of 25 pounds weight, I kept some weeks in my house, and numbers of people saw it; it was thirteen and a half feet long, and two and a half inches in diameter, yet it was not by any means so large a cane as I have seen. The place where I found it growing, was a newly cleared piece of jungle land, whereon a Malay had "*squatted*," built a house, planted rice, and some three acres of sugar-cane around it.

The cane plants had been stuck in the ground without regard to regularity, and had received no kind of attention, yet I counted twenty-five canes of immense size growing from many of the stools. This may be considered a solitary instance, but it is by no means the case, as in any fair jungle land this cane attains an extraordinary size and height; and I dare to affirm, that on any estate in Province Wellesley canes can be found, in the cane pieces, which will weigh 15 pounds at least. It is very evident that the average size on an estate of five hundred acres is much under that—and indeed too large a cane is both inconvenient and undesirable for sugar manufacture.

The Salangore cane is remarkable for the quantity of "*cane itch*," (so termed in the West Indies,) which is found on that portion of the leaf attached to the cane-stalk. Sometimes touching a growing cane incautiously, I have had my hand covered with it, and thousands penetrating deep into the flesh, cause great irritation and inflammation. The leaves are very broad, and deeply serrated at the edges, with a considerable droop; they are some shades darker in color than the Otaheite, and have so good a hold on the stalk as very seldom to fall off, when dry, as some canes do, but require to be taken off by hand. They rattoon better than any canes in the Straits; and I have known them to yield forty piculs (a picul is 133⅓ lbs.) of granulated, but undrained sugar, per orlong, (an orlong is one acre and a third,) as third rattoons. From what I have seen, I am disposed to think that in the West Indies, Mauritius and India, they would be found to rattoon better than any other cane.

As "*plant canes*," I have known them to yield, on an average of some acres, sixty-five piculs of granulated sugar per orlong—or 6,500 lbs. per acre. And I have frequently been informed by a French gentleman in Province Wellesley, that he has in some cases obtained as much as 7,200 lbs. of sugar per acre (undrained); from which he has secured 5,800 lbs. of shipping sugar, well dried in the sun.

For my own part, I have always reckoned as an average, 3,600 lbs. of dry sugar to the acre, as the return this cane will give, on anything like good land, in the Straits, according to the present imperfect mode of expression and manufacture; but considering the surpassing richness of land in the West India islands, Demerara, and Mauritius, I should not be in any way surprised to find that it would there give even three tons an acre.

The Salangore cane grows firm and strong; stands upright much better than the Otaheite; gives juice most abundantly, which is sweet and easy of clarification, boils well, and produces a very fine, fair sugar, of a bold and sparkling grain. On the whole, I like this cane better than any other, and would like to have it tried in the West Indies and Mauritius.

It appears to me to be peculiar to the Malayan Peninsula, and is said to have abounded more particularly in the Rajah of Salangore's territory (between Penang and Malacca.) At present, being cultivated on some fifteen or twenty large estates in Province Wellesley, Penang, it is of course obtainable in that settlement in large quantities.

The "*Tibboo leeut*," (clay cane,) sometimes called the Otaheite, I have already described as belonging to that variety.

The "*Tibboo teeloor*," (or egg cane,) has long been deemed to be the Otaheite cane by the planters of Province Wellesley, but quite erroneously. It is evidently the cane described by Cook, and other navigators, as peculiar to the island of Tanne, one of the New Hebrides. (Quoting from memory,) he says—"The sugar-canes of this island, we remarked, were much superior to those of Otaheite, being softer, more juicy, cleaner, of a paler, brighter yellow, and altogether much finer and more luxuriant; but this superiority in the sugar-cane is more than counterbalanced by the great inferiority of the bread-fruit, &c., produced in this island, compared to that of Otaheite."

I have seen many accounts of the same tendency, but I had an opportunity of satisfying myself more completely by meeting in Singapore the master of a ship who had several times visited those islands, and was altogether a very sensible and observant man. He said that himself and his officers had taken particular notice of the extremely clean and bright appearance of the *Tannæ* cane, in comparison with that of Otaheite; and that on his arrival at Singapore, his Dabash, (a native who supplies the shipping while in harbor,) had come off to the ship with a basket of fruit, amongst which were some pieces of sugar-cane, which they all immediately recognized as the cane of Tannæ, but which the Dabash told them was called in Singapore the egg cane. He further identified the "tibboo leeut" as the genuine Otaheite cane, and said that every man on board his ship could go into any Chinaman's garden and point out to me, without hesitation, the two different canes! I also discovered that this variety was introduced into Manilla many years ago, and from thence found its way to Singapore, where it is extensively cultivated by the Chinese for sale in the markets, as it is in great request for eating. In size it is fully equal to the Otaheite, whilst it is so exceedingly clean and beautiful, that it surpasses all other canes in appearance.

It has many very singular peculiarities, which no one can overlook or forget. Apart from its extreme cleanness and pretty appearance, it is remarkable for the almost entire absence of *cane-itch*—smoothness of leaf; the curious manner in which it bulges out between the joints (which has obtained for it the name of the egg cane, from the Malays, who say that it bulges out in the form of an egg); the peculiarity of shedding its leaves as they become dry; its delicate structure, which causes it to fall over, and very frequently to break short off; and the large size of the eyes or buds (along the stalk,) which are unusually developed, and more readily burst forth than in any other cane I know.

It is very prolific, and with the exception of the China cane, I know no other that can be so quickly propagated; as every eye shoots forthmost vi orously, and each stool has generally from five to fifteen canes growing from it.

It produces as much (if not more) juice, of rich quality, as any cane growing—which can be converted into fine, fair sugar, of a good, strong, sparkling grain. But with so many points to recommend it, still there are, undeniably, some very serious, and I fear fatal objections to it, as a cane for the sugar planter. Its tender nature, liability to fall over, break, and thereby be entirely destroyed, could only be obviated by its being planted, perhaps, on lands securely sheltered from wind, and which also are neither too damp nor too rich.

I have often seen such places: for instance, what we term in Jamaica, *bottoms*, or land lying between hills, which bottoms are generally sufficiently rich for this description of cane, without being too much so. But many places could, no doubt, be found admirably suited, where it would be well protected, and yet have abundance of sun, which it much requires; otherwise, its juice is liable to become watery and mucilaginous: whereas, on the contrary, if it has a fair soil and abundance of sunshine, no juice can be cleaner, and none more rich in saccharine matter.

Some experiments are now going on with this cane on two estates, one of which has fifty acres growing, which will soon be ready for the mill. As far as they have yet been tried, they have, notwithstanding their falling and breaking, yielded very fair returns; but the Chinese contracting cultivators do not like them.

I have already described the Batavia, China, red, and one black cane, found in the Straits, and have, consequently, only one more to notice. This, too, is called "Tibboo etam," but also has an affix, distinctive of its particular character. Thus the Malays term it, "Tibboo etam, obat," or, "Black medicine cane," from an idea that in certain diseases it is a very sovereign panacea. What these highly esteemed properties are, I have altogether forgotten; but these plants are frequently found growing in the gardens of Malays, that they may be found in case of need. It is a small, but clean and pretty cane, of a rich purple color; which color it imparts to the hands and lips of those who eat of it; I was surprised to see how it stained our hands and faces, having never seen such a thing before. One other great peculiarity is the beautiful tint of the leaves, which in some (very young) is of a delicate pink, gradually darkening (in those older) to a fine purple, mingling harmoniously with the green ground of the leaves, and altogether forming a most uncommon and highly pleasing foliage.

From what has been said, it must be evident that the Otaheite and Salangore varieties are the two most valuable canes we know of. It will also be seen that there are, nevertheless, others which, in certain localities, and under peculiar circumstances, become of very great importance, and highly deserving of attention. All this will be rendered more striking as I proceed: I shall therefore only add, that the judicious selection of a variety of cane for planting is of immense importance, as it is not more expensive or troublesome to cultivate a superior cane, which will give large and remunerating returns, than it is to cultivate an inferior kind, which will lead only to disappointment and loss. Nor do I think that any estate should have only one description of cane. It is advisable always to have two, or even three; one of which might be cultivated generally.

DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

1.—NOTICES RELATIVE TO TOBACCO

BY DOCTOR A. T. THOMSON.

"He first the snuff-box open'd, then the case."—*Rape of the Lock.*

WHAT is tobacco, which has enslaved to its use the greater part of the human race for upwards of three centuries? is a question which naturally occurs to the mind of any one who hears or reads of the obstacles which were opposed to its introduction into Europe, and the popularity which it has for so long a period of time maintained. The reply is familiar to every one; it is the dried leaf of a species of plant which is named, in botanical language, *Nicotiana tabacum;* but it is not generally known that the tobacco, which is brought to this country in the form of dried leaves, segars, and snuff, is the production of not one only, but of several species of the genus Nicotiana. The greater number of the species are annual plants, natives of South America; but two, at least, are perennial; the Nicotiana *fruticosa*, which is a shrub, a native of the Cape of Good Hope and of China; and N. *urens*, a native of South America. Many of the species are cultivated in Europe; but it is remarkable that Humboldt found only two of them, the N. *paniculata*, and N. *glutinosa*, growing wild in the Orinoko. He added two new species to the family, the N. *laxenis* and *andicola*, which he found on the Andes at 1850 toises of elevation.

The species of Nicotiana which was first known, and which still furnishes the greatest supply of tobacco, is the N. *tabacum*, an annual plant, a native of South America, but naturalized to our climate. It is a tall, not inelegant plant, rising to the height of six feet, with a strong, round, villous, slightly viscid stem, furnished with alternate leaves, which are sessile, or clasp the stem; and are decurrent, lanceolate, entire; of a full green on the upper surface, and pale on the under. In a vigorous plant, the lower leaves are about twenty inches in length, and from three to five in breadth, decreasing as they ascend. The inflorescence, or flowering part of the stem, is terminal, loosely branching in that form which botanists term a panicle, with long, linear floral leaves or bractes at the origin of each division. The flowers, which blow in July and August, are of a pale pink or rose color; the *calyx* or flower-cup, is bell-shaped, obscurely pentangular, villous, slightly viscid, and presenting at the margin five acute, erect segments. The *corolla* is twice the length of the calyx, viscid, tubular below, swelling above into an oblong cup, and expanding at the lip into fine, somewhat plaited, pointed segments; the seed-vessel is an oblong or ovate capsule, containing numerous reniform seeds, which are ripe in September and October; and, if not collected, are shed by the capsule opening at the apex.

The character that particularly distinguishes N. *tabacum* from the other species of the genus, is the sessile, recurrent leaves.

Besides the species of Nicotiana described by botanists, seven kinds of tobacco, some of which are probably distinct species, others only varieties of the *tabacum*, are cultivated in Virginia; and known by the names of Hudson, Frederick, thick-joint, shoe-string, thickset, sweet-scented, and Orinoko. The cultivation of tobacco varies in different places. I shall only mention that which is pursued, and the manner of preparing the plant, in the United States. The seed is sown in February and March, when the ground is soft and rendered light by repeated workings; in April, after the first vernal rains, the young plants are drawn, and planted in beds, at the distance of three feet from one another. The plantations must be kept well weeded; and in another month the top of each plant is pruned off, the lateral shoots or suckers are taken away, and the weeds very carefully kept down. At this period the plants are attacked by several insects, from which they are cleared by turkies, flocks of which are driven into the grounds for this purpose. When the plant has attained its full height, the leaves begin to acquire a brownish color, and a clamminess which indicates their maturity. They are now cut close to the surface of the ground, and laid in heaps, exposed to the sun, for one day; then carried to the sheds, where each plant is hung up separately, and remains until the leaves are perfectly dry; after which they are stripped from the stalks, and tied in small bundles, a twisted leaf serving to tie them together. These bundles are now laid in heaps, and sometimes covered with blankets or straw, to favor a fermentation which takes place in them; but to prevent their being overheated, they are occasionally opened and spread abroad to the air. As soon as all danger of overheating is past, the tobacco is packed in casks and carried to the public warehouse, where it is examined; if pronounced good, a transfer note is given to the owner, and it is permitted to be exported; if it be bad and unsaleable, it is publicly burnt, and the certificate refused.

Tobacco, as it arrives in this country, has undergone a second fermentation, or *sea-sweat*, as it is termed; and acquires a dark brown hue, and a soft texture. Its odor is strong, and to many not very agreeable; it tastes bitter and very acrid, and when burned, emits sparks, continuing to burn after it has been lighted, resembling the deflagrating of paper that has been soaked in nitre, to which salt, indeed, tobacco owes this mode of burning. It yields its properties both to water and to alcohol; and when distilled *per se*, affords a green essential oil, which is a virulent poison. The expressed juice of the fresh leaves has been analyzed by Vauquelin, the celebrated French chemist, who found in it a considerable quantity of vegetable *albumen or gluten;* some *super-malute of lime, acetic acid, nitrate and muriate of potassa;* a *red matter*, soluble in alcohol and in water, the nature of which is still unknown; *muriate of ammonia*, and a peculiar acrid, volatile principle, which Vauquelin termed *nicotiana*, from the generic name of the plant. To this substance and the volatile oil, the properties of tobacco, both in an economical and medicinal point of view, are to be attributed. I shall notice the peculiar properties of each of these principles in its proper place.

Raleigh found tobacco cultivated in Trinidad, on his first visit to it in 1593; but it was not introduced into Virginia until 1616, when its growth there was commenced under the government of Sir Thomas Dale. It is now also raised in the Brazils, Demerara, Cuba, St. Domingo, the Cape of Good Hope, and in India. Sir W. Raleigh introduced its culture into Ireland, on his estate at Youghal, in the county of Cork; and it is still produced to a small extent in Carlow, Waterford, and Kilkenny, although it has ceased to be raised in England and Scotland since 1782. Before that period, it was extensively reared in the North-Riding of Yorkshire; and in the neighborhood of Kelso, in Scotland, not less than one thousand acres were covered with it. How far the prohibition of its growth at home is to be regarded as an act of legislative wisdom, I must leave others to determine.

The history of tobacco, as a luxury, is a striking illustration of the inefficiency of human laws to control the inclinations of mankind. When Columbus discovered the continent of the Western world, he found that, in some of the religious ceremonies of the Indians, a plant was thrown into the fire, the smoke of which, ascending, produced the same effects upon the officiating Piache, as the mephitic vapors of Delphos upon the Pythian priestess; responses were given, and oracles delivered, under the influence of a peculiar intoxication. This plant was tobacco; which was probably used, also, as a luxury by the subjects of Montezuma, as it was smoked over the whole of America at the period of the Spanish conquest. Its introduction into the Old World soon followed; and although it was opposed by every power, both civil and religious, yet its use has become so general, that it is not only regarded as the solace and enjoyment of the luxurious in every rank of life in civilized Europe, but has been introduced wherever Europeans have found their way; even into the islands of the Pacific Ocean, by their adventurous discoverers. "In the Sandwich Islands," says Kotzebue, "Tobacco is now so generally used, that young children learn to smoke before they walk, and grown up people carry the practice to such an excess that they have fallen down senseless, and often died in consequence.

There is reason for believing, that the first time the Spaniards saw tobacco smoked, as a luxury, was at an amicable interview between Grijalva, a Spaniard, and the Cacique of Tabasco, after a victory which Grijalva, who, under the auspices of Velasques, conducted an expedition from St. Jago de Cuba, in 1518, had gained over the Indians, at Potonchan. It was from the name of the place of this interview, which is indiscriminately called Tabasco and Tabaco, that the plant received the appellation, which Hernandez de Toledo then imposed upon it, and which it still retains.

In the following year, 1519, Cortez, who had commenced his career of ambition, transmitted a propitiatory present to Charles, as a specimen of the wealth and productions of the territory he had conquered for him: as a part of this tribute, tobacco first found its way into Europe, and, through the Venetian and Genoese traders to the Levant, it was introduced into Turkey, Arabia, Persia, and the whole of Asia. It was not, however, until the middle of this century that it attracted considerable notice.

In 1561 some seeds of tobacco were given by a Dutch planter to Jean Nicot, Lord of Villemain, and Master of Requests in the French court, who was then the Ambassador of Francis II. in Portugal. Nicot sent them to Catherine de Medicis, who afterwards patronized it as a medicine; and thence it obtained the name of Herbe à Reine until her death. The generic name, *Nicotiana*, was imposed by Linnæus; and is the appellation now employed.

About this period, the monarchs of the world combined, as it were, to crush, by force, the evils which they anticipated from the introduction of tobacco into their dominions. In England, Elizabeth published an edict against its use, assigning as a reason, that her subjects, by employing the same luxuries as barbarians, were likely to degenerate into barbarism; and in the following reign, James wrote his celebrated "Counterblaste to Tobacco," in which he remarks that the custom of smoking "is loathsome to the eye, hateful to the nose, harmefull to the braine, dangerous to the lungs; and in the black stinking fume thereof, nearest resembling the horrible Stygian smoake of the pit that is bottomless;" whilst, at the same time, he imposed a prohibitory duty of six shillings and eight pence per pound on its importation, and enacted that no planter in Virginia should raise more than one hundred pounds of it in one year.

Charles continued this impost, and made tobacco a royal monopoly, as it is at the present period, in the Netherlands and in France. An amusing fact, connected with the opposition to its general use, is related of Fagon, the physician to Lewis XIV.: in the midst of an oration on the pernicious effects of tobacco, the orator made a pause; and, taking his snuff-box from his pocket, refreshed himself with a pinch to enable him to renew the argument.

In 1590 Shah Abbas prohibited the use of tobacco in Persia by a penal law: but, so firmly had the luxury rooted itself in the minds of his subjects, that many of the inhabitants of the cities fled to the mountains, where they hid themselves, rather than forego the pleasure of smoking.

In the beginning of the next century, in 1624, Pope Urban VIII. anathematized all snuff-takers, who committed the heinous sin of taking a pinch in any church: and so late as 1690, Innocent XII. excommunicated all who indulged in the same vice in Saint Peter's church, at Rome.

In 1625 Amurath IV. prohibited smoking as an unnatural and irreligious custom, under pain of death: few, indeed, suffered the penalty, yet, in Constantinople, where the custom is now universal, smoking was thought to be so ridiculous and hurtful, that any Turk who was caught in the act, was conducted in ridicule through the streets, with a pipe transfixed through his nose.

In Russia, where the peasantry now smoke all day long, the Grand Duke of Moscow prohibited the entrance of tobacco into his dominions, under the penalty of the knout for the first offence, and death for the second; and the Muscovite who was found snuffing, was condemned to have his nostrils split. So great, indeed, was the animosity of the government against tobacco, in every form, that a particular tribunal, the Chambre au Tabac, for punishing smokers, was instituted in 1634, and not abolished until the middle of the eighteenth century.

Even in Switzerland, war was waged against the American herb: to smoke, in Berne, ranked as a crime next to adultery; and in 1653, all smokers were cited before the Council at Apenzel, and severely punished. But, like many bad, and all persecuted customs, tobacco triumphed over its opponents; it is now cultivated in both hemispheres of the globe; and the importation of tobacco and snuff into Great Britain alone, in 1829, amounted to 16,880 hogsheads.

It has been stated that tobacco was discovered by the Spaniards in Yucatan, in 1518; but Humboldt asserts, that it was cultivated, from time immemorial, by the natives of the Orinoko; where it is called *Petun*, *Pole-ma*, and *Piciel*. It was, soon after its discovery, transported to the West Indies; particularly to Cuba, the tobacco of which is still the most highly prized; and to North America, where it has been most extensively cultivated.

One curious circumstance connected with its cultivation in Virginia is worth noticing: the planters, in the beginning of the seventeenth century, being all bachelors, regarded themselves merely as temporary sojourners in the colony; the London Company, which was established in 1606, for the colonization of Virginia, with a view to their steadiness, sent out a number of respectable young women to supply the settlers with wives. These ladies were actually sold for one hundred and twenty pounds of tobacco each, being the quantity considered as equivalent to the expenses of the voyage.

Let us now inquire into the various uses to which tobacco is applied, and its medicinal properties. It is used, as a luxury, in three ways:—for chewing, smoking, and snuffing.

1. *Chewing Tobacco.*—The origin of this custom has not been traced, but it probably sprang from the desire to extract the entire tobacco, a substitute for the fermented juice, the *moo*, which has been already noticed. At this day, the women in the province of Varinas carry this inspissated liquid in "a small box, which they wear like a watch, suspended to one side at the end of a string. Instead of of a key, it is furnished with a little spoon, which they help themselves from time to time, of this juice, relishing it in their mouths like a sweetmeat." Chewing tobacco has always been confined chiefly to the lower classes, and seafaring men, whose avocations do not always permit the means of smoking, and who cannot afford to snuff. Habit enables many chewers to swallow the saliva with impunity, although the strong infusion introduced into the alimentary canal is a virulent sedative poison. The celebrated canon of Saint Victor, Santeuil the poet, fell the victim of a practical joke with tobacco. He was much distinguished for the liveliness of his disposition and his wit. At one of those entertainments, at which he was a constant guest, some young men, thinking it would be a pleasant jest, made him drink a glass of wine, into which a tobacco-box, filled with Spanish tobacco, had been emptied. He was suddenly seized with the most violent vomitings, and, in a few hours afterwards, died in the greatest tortures. The saliva of a chewer of tobacco, when swallowed, affects the stomach nearly in the same manner as opium, taking off the sensation of hunger, and enabling those who indulge in it to sustain the want of provisions for a great length of time. An anecdote, strikingly illustrative of this fact, was related to the author of this notice by an old gentleman, who, in the early part of his life, was employed in collecting furs in North America:—"Having, with his party, by some accident, lost his path in the woods; the provisions were exhausted, when he fortunately encountered three Indians, who were, also, engaged in hunting. He solicited some provisions from them; but was informed they had none. He then begged for some tobacco. Alas! there was only one solitary quid in the company, and that was half masticated; but, with the feeling of true benevolence, the Indian took it from his mouth, divided it, and presented one-half to the Englishman, who accepted it; and declared that it was the sweetest morsel he had ever enjoyed." The tobacco for chewing is shag tobacco, cut from Richmond tobacco, being first wetted, and afterwards dried in a hot pan. What is termed roll tobacco is formed into a cord, of a moderate thickness, by depriving the leaf of its veins, moistening it, and after pressing it in a powerful press, so as to extend the oil over the whole equally, twisting it, or, as it is termed, spinning it.

2. *Smoking Tobacco.*—This mode of using tobacco was known in America, at the period of its discovery by Columbus, and so highly prized, that, like the Olive, the *Calumet* was the symbol of peace and concord. It has been supposed that smoking was unknown in the Old World before the discovery of America, but Mr. Brodigan has advanced the following evidence against this supposition:—

"Herodotus asserts that the Massagetæ, and all the Scythic nations, had among them certain herbs which they threw into the fire, the ascending smoke of which, the company seated round the fire collected, causing them to dance and sing."

Strabo also says, that "they had a religious order amongst them, who frequently smoked for recreation, which, according to Pomponius Mela, a geographical writer in the time of Claudius, and Solinus, they received through tubes."

The ancient Scythiæ smoked narcotic herbs through wooden and earthen tubes; and Mr. Brodigan states, that in the year 1784, some laborers digging at Brannockston, in the county of Kildare, a spot where a battle had been fought, in the tenth century, between the Irish and Danes, discovered an ancient "tobacco-pipe sticking between the teeth of a human skull." Many similar pipes, which were of course earthenware, lay scattered among the bones in the stone coffins.

But, although the word tobacco-pipe is employed by Mr. Brodigan, yet, there is no evidence to prove that the pipes found on this occasion, which have also been dug up in England, and attributed to the Danes, were used with tobacco. These facts, however, are sufficient to prove that smoking herbs with a pipe is a very ancient custom. *Cigar* or *Cheroot* appears to have been first used in the East Indies, although the best segars are now brought from the Havana; and, at this time, are exactly worth their weight in silver in the London market.

There is every reason for believing that smoking tobacco was introduced into England on the return of Drake's fleet; and, it is asserted, that Sir Walter Raleigh was the pupil of Captain Lane, one of Drake's officers, in the acquirement of this elegant accomplishment. He soon set the fashion; and, in communicating the art to his friends, gave smoking parties at his house, where his guests were treated with nothing but a pipe, a mug of ale, and a nutmeg. From the anecdote related in this volume, respecting the weight of smoke, the vapor of the pipe certainly did not throw a cloud over the brilliant wit of the unfortunate Raleigh.

The soothing influence of a pipe has proved so agreeable to men of philosophic and contemplative minds, that smoking may almost be designated the pastime of the sage. Sir Isaac Newton, Hooker, and many other scientific and literary men, might be named as proofs of the truth of this assertion. But on those unaccustomed to it, smoking produces very unpleasant effects, which have sometimes terminated fatally. The first symptoms are elevation of spirits, with an accelerated and strengthened pulse; but this excitement is transient, and is soon followed by vertigo, sickness, fainting, and a weak tremulous pulse, indicating a powerful degree of collapse. Sometimes these symptoms quickly subside, on removing from the atmosphere of the smoking-room; at other times, they have been known to continue for forty-eight hours. I have an instance of the kind, at this time, under my eye: and Gmelin has related two fatal cases of excessive smoking, in one of which seventeen, and in the other eighteen, pipes were smoked at a sitting. It is, nevertheless, well known, that some German professors are in the habit of smoking, daily, from fifteen to eighteen pipes with impunity.

As smoking is a species of distillation, the *Nicotina*, or sedative principle of the tobacco, being more volatile and less condensable than the essential oil, chiefly comes over with the smoke, and acts upon the nervous energy of the habit through the medium of the lungs. When the quantity is excessive, it paralyzes the heart, rendering it insensible to the stimulus of the blood, and the circulation ceases.

The experiments of Mr. Brodie have demonstrated that the essential oil is more poisonous than the infusion of tobacco, which contains, like the smoke, *nicotina*; but it kills by exciting convulsions and coma, without affecting the heart. This oil accumulates in old tobacco-pipes. The poisonous effects of it are thus mentioned by Mr. Barrow:—"A Hottentot applied some of it from the short end of his wooden tobacco-pipe to the mouth of a snake, while darting out his tongue. The effect was instantaneous as an electric shock—with a convulsive motion that was momentary, the snake half untwisted itself, and never stirred more; and the muscles were so contracted, that the whole animal felt hard and rigid, as if dried in the sun."

The tobacco most prized for smoking is that reared in Cuba and on the Rio Negro; that of Cumana is the most aromatic. The Havana segars are esteemed in every part of the world where smoking is indulged. The coarse, acrid tobacco chiefly employed by the lower classes of the people in the country, is the produce of Virginia; and on the Continent, that of Brazil and of Santa Cruz. Tobacco grown in the East Indies is not much esteemed in Europe. The produce of the Levant is mild and weak, with a sweet or honey-like flower.

3. *Snuffing Tobacco.*—If smoking has been carried to excess, snuffing has been still more abused; although it is questionable, whether any cases of death ever occurred from taking too much snuff.

A collection of snuffs from various parts of the world, and the history of them, would form a singular specimen of ingenuity idly exercised, in varying the form and quality of a powder, merely intended for the titillation of one set of nerves. In this country, the snuffs, like the varieties of sheep and geraniums, may all be traced to one stock—the Rappee, which derives its name from having been originally produced by rasping what is called a carot of tobacco. To form this, the leaves of tobacco, freed from their stems and veins, are fermented and pressed closely together into the shape of a spindle, and retained in that shape by cords wound round them. Scotch snuff, which is also the basis of many snuffs, is made from tobacco, with the midrid and veins left in the leaves, which are first fermented, then dried before a strong fire, and afterwards ground in mills, resembling a large mortar and pestle.

It would be useless to mention half the snuffs that are in fashion. The rappee and the Scotch snuff are the basis of the greatest number of them, the variety of flavor being communicated by the admixture of different proportions of the three following:—*Sevillo* snuff, the best Spanish, made from the Cuba tobacco; *Macaba*, made from tobacco grown on the banks of the Maracaibo in Venezuela, and called *Tobaco de Sacerdotes;* and *Masulipatam*, made from a very broad-leaved tobacco; but, of what species it is, the writer of these notices is ignorant. It has been asserted, that common salt, sal ammoniac, and even ground glass, and other objectionable articles, are added to the tobacco in the manufacture of snuff; but these admixtures are unknown in this country, if they be employed elsewhere; and the whole art of making snuff depends on the mode of drying the leaves, the degree of fermentation that they have undergone, and the proper admixture of the different varieties.

Long before the introduction of tobacco, sneezing-powders or sternutatories were in vogue. These had been medicinally employed from the time of Hippocrates; and the use of them had degenerated into a habit with the Irish and some other nations. If the description of a fop by Shakspeare, in his play of Henry the Fourth, refer to Cephalic powder, the custom, probably, also prevailed in England:—

> "He was perfumed like a milliner,
> And 'twixt his finger and his thumb he held
> A pouncet-box, which ever and anon
> He gave his nose."

Be this as it may, soon after the introduction of tobacco into England it was generally employed in the form of snuff by both sexes; and was allowed even in the royal presence. The gallants of those days, indeed, seem to have been as extravagant in their snuff-boxes, as particular in the nature of their contents, and as affected in the use of them, as the silliest of our modern fops. "Before the meat came smoking to the board," says Dekker, "our gallant must draw out his tobacco-box and the ladle for the cold snuff into the nostril, all which artillery may be of gold or silver, if he can reach to the price of it; then let him show his several tricks in taking it, as the whiff, the ring, &c., for these are complements that gain gentlemen no mean respect." The custom of raising the snuff with a spoon to the nostrils was not confined, however, to the fop and the courtier; for, as appendages attached to the mull of the Scotch highlander, we find not only a spoon, but also a hare's foot, to brush the snuff from the upper lip, indicating the excess to which this indulgence was carried. The quantity of snuff taken by many octogenarians of the present day is almost incredible, and only exceeded by the excesses of some of their early contemporaries who have gone before them. The late Arthur Murphy carried his snuff in his waistcoat pocket, and used it wholesale; and I have known many literary men who emptied three or four large boxes in a day. As in the abuse of opium and wine, the indulgence in snuff increases the desire for it, until the habit becomes too deeply fixed as not to be eradicated; indeed, the power which the animal system possesses of accommodating itself to the excitation of artificial stimulants, is well illustrated by the effects of snuff on the sensitive nerves of the olfactory organ. In the uninitiated a small pinch produces a stimulant effect, which is communicated by nervous sympathy to the whole of the respiratory system of muscles, which are thrown into convulsive action or sneezing, whereas no quantity is capable of causing this effect on the veteran snuffer, so much does the constant repetition of impression diminish the sensibility and irritability of the Schneiderean membrane. It would be curious to determine whether, in this effect of snuff, the same principle that impresses the odorous sensation on the nerves of smelling, affords the stimulus to those of sensation which cause the sneezing, and the increased action of the pituitary glands to augment the quantity of the lubricating mucus of the organ.

Snuffing, as it is the most frequent and inoffensive to others, is also the least injurious manner of using tobacco as a luxury; although, in those unaccustomed to it, like smoking, it not only causes sneezing, but nausea and vertigo. In great snuffers, the stomach frequently suffers, and dyspeptic symptoms supervene, accompanied with pains and torminia, or a twisting sensation of the bowels. This may arise, in part, from the snuff passing into the pharynx and being swallowed; although it is also possible that it may depend on sympathy. Snuffing is frequently injurious to weak and nervous people; and some physicians, among whom was the celebrated Lorry, have ascribed to its use the frequent occurrence of nervous diseases. It is, however, unfortunate for this opinion, that in the royal snuff manufactories of France, comprising a population of above 4,000 persons, the workmen are not subject to any special diseases, and they live on an average as long as other people; in addition to the fact, that the most inordinate use of it has not often produced nervous affections.

Snuff, we have said, has been recommended as an errhine or promoter of the discharge of the nostrils in a tendency to apoplexy; but although the quantity of the fluid discharged may cause the depletion of the vessels of the head, yet, on account of its narcotic quality, snuff ought to be employed with caution; and as we occasionally see great snuff-takers seized with apoplexy and palsy on suddenly leaving off its use, there is sufficient reason for regarding it as a less proper errhine than many other substances.

The hints that have been given of some of the medicinal properties of tobacco, leave little to be said on this head. Its medicinal qualities were early known; it was named Herba panacea, and admitted into the Materia Medica of France in 1562: and, probably, the abuse of it as a medicine gave rise to many of the objections to its introduction into general use, which were afterwards nurtured by prejudice and falsehood. We observe the credulity of its evil effects carried to an absurd length in the Counterblaste, to which we have already referred:—"It makes," says the royal author, "a kitchen, also, oftentimes in the inward parts of men, as soyling and infecting them with an unctuous and oily kind of soote, as hath been found in some great tobacco-takers, that after their death were opened." And not less strong is the prejudice displayed in the following opinion of a man of superior intellect, the celebrated author of the Anatomy of Melancholy:—

"A good vomit I confesse; a vertuous herbe, if it be well qualified, opportunely taken, and medicinally used; but as it is commonly used by most men, which take it as tinkers do ale, 'tis a plague, a mischiefe, a violent purger of goods, lands, hellish, develish, damned tobacco; the ruin and overthrow of body and soule."

The medicinal properties of tobacco are, nevertheless, considerable; it induces narcotic, sedative, emetic, cathartic, diuretic, and errhine effects, according to the manner of administering it and the extent of the dose. Its active principles are, undoubtedly, the *Nicotina*, and *the essential oil which it contains;* before, therefore, noticing its medicinal and poisonous qualities, let us understand the nature of these principles separated from the plant.

Nicotina, when pure, is a colorless substance, having an acrid taste, and the odor that distinguishes tobacco: it resembles, in some respects, the volatile oils, is volatile, and soluble in water and alcohol, forming solutions which have the taste and odor of Nicotina. When tincture of galls is added to these solutions, the Nicotina is precipitated. Applied to the nostrils it causes the most violent sneezing, and is also extremely poisonous when swallowed. It is procured from tobacco by a very operose process.

The *essential oil* of tobacco is of a green color, hot and pungent to the taste, and a virulent poison. It is procured by the distillation of the leaves.

To determine the mode in which tobacco affects the living frame, Dr. Wilson Philip made a number of experiments, with a strong aqueous infusion of it, on frogs. He found that when it was introduced into the heart, this organ immediately became paralytic, and that the same state occurs when it is applied directly to the brain, or when thrown into the stomach and intestines. He thence concluded, that in every instance it acts only through the medium of the brain, to which it is conveyed by the blood. Some subsequent experiments of Professor Macartney, of Dublin, have, however, demonstrated, that it is on the extremities of the nerves that tobacco acts with most energy; and the still more convincing investigations of Mr. Brodie afford every reason for thinking that tobacco operates in two distinct ways, according to the form in which it is used. When a strong infusion was introduced into the intestines of a dog, it killed the animal in ten minutes, by paralyzing the heart, which was evident from arterial blood being found in the aortal cavities after death; but when the essential oil was employed, convulsions and coma were excited, and death followed without the heart being affected. The same symptoms presented themselves when the oil was applied to the tongue of a young cat; and the powerful influence of it is well illustrated by the account of its effects on a snake. Now, as the only active principles contained in tobacco are *nicotina* and *essential oil*, we are disposed to regard the former as a direct sedative, which acts chiefly on the sentient extremities of the motor nerves, and the latter as a powerful stimulant, operating through the influence of the brain and spinal marrow. Is it the essential oil that causes the primary or stimulant effects of tobacco, and the nicotina that induces the depression and collapse that follow? Experiments are still required to determine this point.

Notwithstanding these violent effects of tobacco, it is a useful medicine, under judicious management. Its fumes, when smoked, are narcotic, relieving the difficulty of breathing in spasmodic asthma, and allaying the pain of toothache; and Humboldt states, that it is employed in South America, by the higher classes, to facilitate the siesta after dinner. The very sickness and debility which it causes are taken advantage of, to relieve the incarcerated hernia, ileus, and obstinate constrictions, by introducing either the smoke or the infusion into the intestines when other remedies fail. The infusion has been employed as an emetic, but the practice is very dangerous; and even its employment in small doses as a diuretic, in dropsical affections, cannot be much commended. In one spasmodic affection, however, connected with the secretion of the kidney, its influence is taken advantage of, when the patient is not of a delicate habit of body. It is not unfrequently employed by the unprofessional, as an external application in cutaneous eruptions, and especially in ring-worm of the head, (Porrigo *Scutulata*,) but we have witnessed the most violent sickness, giddiness, and alarming fainting follow the use of a tobacco lotion; and there is much danger if the skin be abraded. In the Orinoko the natives apply chewed tobacco to the bite of poisonous snakes.

For the purposes of internal administration, the London College of Physicians order a drachm of tobacco to be macerated for an hour, in a pint of water; but, even in this degree of strength, the infusion sometimes produces violent effects. Instances are recorded of two drachms, instead of one drachm, of the leaves being employed, and proving fatal.

The Edinburgh College orders a wine of tobacco, which may be given in doses of from ten to thirty drops: and a syrup of it is employed on the Continent. Like every other powerful medicine, tobacco may be rendered available of much good, when prescribed with judgment and discrimination; but it becomes a most frightful weapon in the hands of the ignorant and indiscreet.

From the effects of the tincture of galls in producing an insoluble and consequently inert compound with nicotina, galls, either in infusion or tincture, should be administered in instances of poisoning by overdoses of tobacco: under any form in which it is taken into the stomach; whilst, at the same time, ammonia, brandy, and other stimulants, are requisite to rouse the depressed energies of the nervous system. When the danger is pressing, the respiration should be supported by artificial means, and kept up until the narcotic influence of the poison is exhausted.

Such is the nature of this potent herb; and such have been the origin and dissemination of tobacco; an object of secondary importance as regards the life of Raleigh; but yet so familiar, and productive of such important results, as to awaken general curiosity regarding it. The arms of the Romans spread the arts of civilized life among the untutored nations, over whom they triumphed; the enterprise of one of their conquered provinces, a thousand years after the overthrow of their empire, transported an insignificant herb, from the western hemisphere, whose influence has extended over nations the existence of which was unknown to the masters of the world. Among the Indian tribes, the calumet is the symbol of the peace and concord of nations; in Christendom, the powder of the herb that confers its charm, is that of amicable intercourse and social amity between man and man; its smoke, rising in clouds from the idolatrous altar of the native Mexican, opened the world of spirits to his delirious imagination; to the inhabitants of the opposite hemisphere, whilst it has furnished the means of encouraging folly, pampering luxury, and waging war, it has, at the same time, contributed to lessen the sum of human misery, by allaying pain, and even assisted in extending the boundaries of intellect, by aiding the contemplations of the Christian philosopher.

2.—FRUIT CULTURE FOR THE SOUTH.

(Continued.)

Plums.—There are many varieties of native plums found in this country, but the finer varieties of cultivated plums were introduced from the south of Europe. The plum, like the peach, may be propagated from seeds, or by grafts—seeds, where new varieties are wanted; and grafts, where an old established kind is to be propagated. Graft below the ground, as directed for the apple, in roots of the plum, peach, or sloe, of one year's growth; and if grafted from a healthy fruit-bearing tree, the graft will produce fruit the third year. The plum tree will grow in almost any soil, and is very luxuriant in a light sandy soil: but to produce fruit it must have a stiff heavy clay, or a loam with a clay sub-soil. The great enemy of the fruit is the curculio, or plum weevil. This is a brown bug or beetle, about the size of a pea bug, which makes its appearance about the time the fruit is forming in the bloom. This bug has a proboscis, and makes a puncture in the young fruit in the form of a crescent; in this he deposits an egg; the wound soon heals, the egg hatches out a worm, and the worm eats inwardly until it reaches the kernel, when the fruit drops; he now eats his way out, burrows in the ground, where he goes through a chrysalis state, and next spring comes out a curculio, ready for his work of destruction again. It is observed that where soils are very stiff, the worm cannot force his way in, and consequently perishes; for this reason, stiff clay soils are absolutely necessary for the perfection of the fruit. Paving around the tree has proved of great service; but whether it is the instinct of the curculio which teaches it to shun those trees where there is no chance of propagating itself, or whether it is the fact of so many of the worms perishing on the pavement, has not yet been determined. Wherever the plum orchard is, it should be a hard trodden yard, with hogs, geese, and other poultry, ranging through it. The curculio seems to be the natural enemy of all the thin-skin fruits, and is a very shy and timid insect, dropping to the ground at the least jar of the tree. I have tried many experiments to get clear of him, but to no purpose. Salt has been recommended. I have found salt a fine invigorator of the plum tree, but no preventive against the curculio. There are localities around us where the plum flourishes, and yields heavy crops, but invariably the soil is stiff clay. The other diseases which the plum is subject to in the northern states we are exempt from here; our only enemy is the curculio, and his name is legion. The plum tree requires little or no pruning; as the tree gets old, shorten in the branches, to produce new wood.

Nectarines.—The nectarine is only a variety of the peach, with a smooth skin. Its culture and propagation are in all respects like the peach, but, like the plum, it is subject to the attacks of the curculio, and should be planted in stiff soil, to secure fruit.

Apricot.—The apricot is found wild in Asia and America, and is one of the thin, smooth-skin fruits, between the plum and peach. It is desirable for its early bearing, being the first of all the stone fruits that ripen; but, like the plum, it is haunted by that scourge of thin-skin fruits, the curculio, and should be treated accordingly. It may be propagated by seeds or by grafting. Graft under ground, as directed for the apple, on roots of plum, peach, or apricot, and if grafted from fruit-bearing trees, two years will give fruit from the graft. From the early blooming of the apricot, the blooms are extremely liable to be killed by frosts; the tree, therefore, should be planted in the most exposed situations to prevent the too early blooming. The plum, nectarine, and apricot, must all be planted in stiff soils, or constantly watched, and shaken during the fruiting season, and the insects destroyed, or they cumber the ground, and, like Dead Sea fruits, perish before they come to the lips.

Cherry.—The cherry was introduced into Europe, from Asia, by the Romans, and into this country by our English ancestors. The Morello is quite easy of culture and propagation, growing readily from seeds, and flourishing in almost any soil. But the finer varieties of English cherries must be grafted. Graft on one year old roots of the Morello, as directed for the apple, and bearing trees will be produced in three years. The English cherry cannot stand our long, hot summers; the bark becomes blistered, and the tree cracks and dies; to prevent this, shade the tree. It is well to box the tree, up as high as the limbs, as we find ornamental trees in towns, to prevent the barking by cattle; have the box bored full of holes, to let in light and air.

The north side of a house is the most appropriate place for the English cherry. The English cherry may also be grafted on a three-year-old Morello, in the limbs, as the Morello stands the sun better than the English. The foliage of the graft protects it from the sun, and all the fine varieties of English or French cherries may be propagated and cultivated in this manner.

QUINCE.—The quince is a native of the south of Europe, and was introduced into this country by the early settlers. It is one of the easiest trees propagated from, growing freely from cuttings. It is well adapted to southern culture, and will grow in almost any soil; for this reason, it is too often neglected, and suffered to be overrun with weeds and bushes; knotty and stunted fruit is the consequence. There is no tree bears higher manuring, and none that pays better for it. It is a mistaken notion that the quince requires a low, damp locality; from the fact they will grow there, has led many to believe that it was its natural habit. But the finest quinces I have ever seen in any country, were grown on high, dry lands, in Chambers county, Alabama. The tree is inclined to sucker; these should be kept down, and a tree encouraged instead of a bush, which will improve the quality of the fruit. Where the ground is shaded around the roots with straw, the fruit is much larger and finer. It is observed that southern quinces are not as acid as those raised north, which is probably owing to the climate. As a preserving fruit, the quince ranks among the first in the country.

GRAPE.—This is one of the oldest fruits in existence, having been extensively cultivated by the earliest fathers for wine. It is found in almost every clime, and is indigenous here. Our native grapes are superior for southern culture to any of the foreign varieties that have yet been introduced. It is easy of propagation, growing freely from cuttings and layers. In a deep, rich soil, abounding in lime, the grape is a long-lived plant, but from some cause, not yet explained, they are becoming a short-lived plant in Middle Georgia and Alabama; eight to ten years being their average life; but they are so easily propagated and produce fruit so quickly, that it is almost like serving an annual crop. Most of the grapes strike freely from cuttings, and bear freely the second year, and the third are in their greatest perfection. Among the grapes which strike frequently from cuttings, the Catawba and Warrentown are found to suit our own locality better than most others; being fine table grapes, and excellent for wine. Grape cuttings may be put out either in the fall or spring; let there be from three to five buds on the cutting; make a smooth, clean cut; place the cutting nearly horizontal in the ground, leaving out two buds; when the bud begins to swell, pinch off the weakest bud. The grape delights in a calcareous soil, and where it is not found, lime should be freely used; no heating manures should be applied around the grape vines, but the mould from swamps, ashes, gypsum, soapsuds, and, added to this, the best manure I have ever found for grapes is shade—shade to the roots. Cover the ground with leaves or straw as far as the roots extend, which keeps the roots cool and moist. Grape vines with us do not require the pruning that the Europeans give them. Any time between October and February, take out all the dead wood, and where the vine has become too scraggling and long jointed, cut, to force new and thicker branches. The grape is sometimes affected with mildew or rot. This is caused by frequent changes in the weather, and will hardly ever occur if the ground around the roots is properly mulched; for whatever changes may take place in the atmosphere, there is always an even temperature around the roots, which gives health to the fruit. The Scuppernong, a native white grape of North Carolina, is better adapted to southern culture than any other grape, growing in any kind of soil and almost any situation; it however does not strike freely from cuttings, but must be layered or grafted. It is fully equal as a table, and superior as a wine grape, to any grape that I am acquainted with; it is superior for arbors and trellis-work, growing rapidly and holding its foliage for a long time. There are but few diseases that the grape is subject to here.

The aphis, or ant cow, is a troublesome insect, not so much from the actual damage that they do, as the unsightly appearance they give to the ends of the vines. A sprinkling of Scotch snuff, when the dew is on the leaf, will soon exterminate them.

POMEGRANATE.—This beautiful fruit was first introduced from the south of Europe, and flourishes well in all this section. It is easily propagated by seeds, layers, or by cuttings. They grow in almost any kind of soil; but a rich, sandy loam suits them best; they require little or no pruning, merely taking out the dead and decaying wood. There are several varieties, but the sweet fruited is preferable for the dessert. It is not so much the value of the fruit, as its peculiar beauty, that leads to its cultivation; being extremely beautiful when in flower or fruit. No ornamental grounds should be without it.

FIG.—This, like the grape, is one of the oldest fruits cultivated. It probably originated in the Garden of Eden, and is the only fruit that has come down to us unimproved, from that prince and father of horticulturists, Adam himself. We find no account of an improvement in its culture, but figs six thousand years ago were probably the same as the figs of to-day. The fig is easily propagated, by cuttings, layers, or dividing the roots, and will grow in almost any soil, but the fruit is of superior flavor when grown on a rich sandy loam. It is liable to be winter-killed in this section, and should therefore be planted in an open exposure, where it may get all the cold to retard its early budding. It is rarely killed in the winter, until the sap has commenced rising. It is well to prune the bush so as to form a tree, as it is better able to bear the cold of winter. A barren fig may sometimes be made productive, by pruning the roots. When a winter is very severe, a fig tree may be protected from the cold by applying a good coat of stable manure around the roots, covering the ground around the tree, about six inches deep. There are many varieties, and all have their advocates. The fig should receive more extensive culture.

STRAWBERRY.—This favorite fruit is a native of most of the states of the Union, and has been brought to its present high state of perfection by hybridizing and careful culture. The finest strawberries grown in the universe are of American origin. The people of the South have labored under a great mistake, in supposing strawberry culture not adapted to the South. I assert, without fear of successful contradiction, that there is no country under heaven better adapted to the cultivation of this fine fruit than the southern part of these United States. Strawberries may be propagated by seeds, or by runners—seeds, when new varieties are wanted; and by runners, where an established variety is to be perpetuated.

I have no doubt that the principal reason why so many have failed in the culture of the strawberry here, is, too high manuring. Most of the directions for strawberry culture, which we get from the North, urge the importance of high manuring. I started the strawberry culture with Hovey's seedling, manured high, and for four years never had a berry. At length a friend informed me, that, when surveying the Indian lands in Russell county for the government, riding a white horse, his legs were frequently stained by the juice of the strawberries, half-way up to the knee. I concluded that if they grew thus wild, I would try and imitate nature. In the first place, the strawberry-grower must understand the difference between the staminate and pistillate, or, in other words, the male and female plants. There are three grades of plants: the entirely staminate or male; the entirely pistillate or female; and the hermaphrodite, blending the staminate and pistillate together. The pistillate varieties are the most productive, when properly impregnated, as every bloom will make a fruit. The entirely staminate produce no fruit at all, and as they produce a great quantity of runners, they are very apt to run out all the fruit-bearing vines. The hermaphrodites are good bearers, and answer for impregnators to the pistillates, too. In selecting a bed for strawberries, select a piece of light, porous, rich ground. Plow or spade it well, and at any time from October to February, plant out the bed; let the rows be two feet apart, and plant six rows of the pistillate, one foot apart in the row, and now one row of staminate, or hermaphrodite, every sixth row, being the impregnators. Apply no animal manure, but keep the bed well covered with partially decomposed leaves; and every spring dress the bed with ashes, either leached or unleached. Keep down the runners through the fruiting season. It is worthy of remark, that the pistillates, from their enormous productiveness, rarely make runners in the fruiting season. When the bed has become matted over with vines, go over it with hoes, and cut the vines up, leaving a stand of healthy vines, at proper distances; leave the vines to decay where they are cut, for they afford the best kind of nutriment to the living plant. When the vines commence bearing, give them copious waterings, which will cause the young fruit to swell and mature; it is very easy to distinguish between the male and female blooms; the staminate being a large, showy bloom, with long stamens filled with a yellow dust, or pollen; whilst the pistillate is a small, unpretending flower, without stamen or pollen, but with a simple stigma. It is observed of the pistillate kinds, that they bear much thicker planting than the staminate, frequently producing enormous crops of fine fruit, when the vines are matted together; but the season must prove a wet one to insure this. It is better to keep them worked out, and clean. I have had the Hovey's seedling to produce fruit ten months in the year, cultivated on this mulching principle, and in all the list of strawberries which I have ever tried, I have never found any to compare with the Hovey seedling, when impregnated with the large early scarlet. There are other varieties that are just as good as the early scarlet to impregnate with, for the common strawberry season; but as the early scarlet, like the Hovey, is almost a constant bloomer, it keeps the pistillates in constant bearing. There is a great difference in strawberry plants standing the droughts of our hot summers.

DEPARTMENT OF INTERNAL IMPROVEMENTS.

1.—RAIL-ROADS IN THE UNITED STATES ON THE 1st JANUARY, 1852.*

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
MAINE.		
Androscoggin	..	36
Androscoggin & Kennebec	55	..
Atlantic and St. Lawrence	91	65
Bangor and Piscataquis	12	..
Buckfield Branch	10	..
Calais and Baring	6	..
Franklin	9	..
Portland and Kennebec	36	33
Portland, Saco and Portsmouth	52	..
York and Cumberland	12	41
NEW-HAMPSHIRE.		
Ashuelot	24	..
Boston, Concord and Montreal	76	17
Cheshire	54	..
Cochecho	18	..
Concord	35	..
Concord and Claremont	26	24
Contocook Valley	14	..
Great Falls	3	..
Great Falls and Conway	13	..
Manchester and Lawrence	26	..
New-Hampshire Central	26	..
Northern	82	..
Portsmouth and Concord	23	17
Sullivan	25	..
Wilton	18	..
White Mountain	..	18
VERMONT.		
Bennington Branch	..	6
Connecticut and Passumpsic	61	53
Rutland and Burlington	119	..
Rutland and Washington	12	..
Troy and Rutland	..	55
Vermont and Canada	38	..
Vermont Central	115	..
Vermont Valley	24	..
Western Vermont	..	53
MASSACHUSETTS.		
Berkshire	21	..
Boston and Lowell	28	..
Boston and Maine	83	..
Boston and Providence	53	..
Boston and Worcester	69	..
Cape Cod Branch	29	..

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[*] Western Journal.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Connecticut River	52	..
Dorchester and Milton	3	..
*Eastern	75	..
Essex	21	..
Fall River	42	..
Fitchburg	69	..
Fitchburg and Worcester	14	..
Grand Junction	7	..
Harvard Branch	1	..
Lexington and West Cambridge	7	..
Lowell and Lawrence	12	..
Nashua and Lowell	15	..
New-Bedford and Taunton	21	..
Newburyport	15	..
Norfolk County	26	..
Old Colony	45	..
Peterboro' and Shirley	14	..
Pittsfield and North Adams	18	..
Providence and Worcester	43	..
Salem and Lowell	17	..
South Reading Branch	8	..
South Shore	11	..
Stockbridge and Pittsfield	22	..
Stoney Brook	13	..
Stoughton Branch	4	..
Taunton Branch	12	..
Troy and Greenfield	..	67
Vermont and Massachusetts	77	..
†Western	157	..
West Stockbridge	3	..
Worcester and Nashua	46	..
RHODE ISLAND.		
Providence and Stonington	50	..
CONNECTICUT.		
Hartford and New-Haven	62	..
Hartford, Providence & Fishkill	51	..
Housatonic	110	..
Housatonic Branch	11	..
Middletown Branch	10	..
Naugatuck	62	..
New-Haven and Northampton	45	..
New-London, Willimantic and Palmer	66	..
New-London and New-Haven	..	55
New-York and New-Haven	76	..
Norwich and Worcester	66	..
Collinsville	11	..
Stonington and New-London	..	10
NEW-YORK.		
Albany and Schenectady	17	..
Albany and West Stockbridge	38¼	..
Attica and Buffalo	32½	..
Buffalo and Niagara Falls	22	..
Cayuga and Susquehanna	33	..
Chemung	17¼	..
Hudson and Berkshire	31½	..
Hudson River	144	..
Lewiston	3	..
Long Island	98	..
New-York and Erie	464	..
New-York and Harlem	130	..
Northern	118	..
Oswego and Syracuse	35	..
Rensselaer and Saratoga	32	..
Rochester and Syracuse	104	..
Saratoga and Washington	39½	..
Saratoga and Schenectady	22	..
Schenectady and Troy	20½	..
Skaneateles and Jordan	5	..
Syracuse and Utica	53	..
Tioga	15	..
Tonawanda	43½	..
Troy and Greenbush	6	..
Utica and Schenectady	78	..
Watertown and Rome	97	..
Albany and Northern	..	33
Albany and Susquehanna	..	130
Buffalo and State Line	26	41
Buffalo and New-York	..	58
Buffalo and Cohocton Valley	..	130
Canandaigua and Corning	46	..
Plattsburg and Montreal	..	25
Rochester and Niagara Falls	..	74
Rutland and Washington	28	..
Sackett's Harbor and Ellisburgh	..	17
Troy and Boston	..	39
Troy and Rutland	15	..
Canandaigua and Niagara Falls	..	92
Syracuse and Binghamton	..	70
Sodus Bay and Southern	..	35
Whitehall and Rutland	13	..
NEW-JERSEY.		
Belvidere and Delaware	15	40
Burlington and Mount Holley	6	..
Camden and Amboy	64	..
Morris and Essex	35	45
New-Jersey	31	..
New-Jersey Central	36	26
Paterson and Ramapo	33	..
Trenton Branch	6	..
PENNSYLVANIA.		
Alleghany Portage	36	..

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* This includes the Eastern (N. H.) Railway, which is owned and operated by the Eastern (Mass.) company.

† This includes the Albany and West Stockbridge Railway in New-York, which is owned and operated by the Western Rail-road Company.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Beaver Meadow	36	..
Carbondale and Honesdale	24	..
Columbia and Philadelphia	82	..
Westchester Branch	9	..
Corning and Blossburgh	25	..
Cumberland Valley	52	..
Hazleton and Lehigh	10	..
Little Schuylkill	20	..
Mine Hill	30	..
Mount Carbon	7	..
Pennsylvania	185	64
Phil., Reading and Pottsville	92	..
Phil. and Norristown	17	..
Germantown Branch	6	..
Phil. and Trenton	30	..
Phil., Wilmingt. and Baltimore	98	..
Schuylkill Valley	25	..
Summit Hill and Mauch Chunk	25	..
Whitehaven and Wilkesbarre	20	..
Williamsport and Elmira	25	51
Franklin	22	..
Dauphin and Susquehanna	16	..
Strasbürgh	7	..
Lykens Valley	16	..
Nesquehoning	5	..
Room Run	5	..
Pine Grove	5	..
Beaver Meadow Branch	12	..
York and Cumberland	25	..
Sunbury and Erie	..	240
Lackawanna and Western	50	..
Catawissa and Williamsport	..	89
Delaware and Susquehanna	..	48
Philadelphia and Westchester	..	25
Pennsylvania Coal Co.	47	..
Hempfield	..	77
Alleghany Valley	..	180
Columbia Branch	19	..
Hanover Branch	13	..
York and Wrightsville	13	..
Lancaster and Harrisburgh	37	..

DELAWARE.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
New-Castle and Frenchtown	16	..
Wilmington Branch	..	11

MARYLAND.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Annapolis and Elkridge	21	..
Baltimore and Ohio	254	125
Washington Branch	21	..
Frederick Branch	3	..
Baltimore and Susquehanna	57	..
Westminster Branch	10	..

VIRGINIA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Richmond and Danville	35	122
Richmond and Petersburg	22	..
Clover Hill	15	..
South Side	10	110
Manassas Gap	..	106
Petersburg and Roanoke	60	..
Seaboard and Roanoke	80	..
Appomattox	9	..
Winchester and Potomac	32	..
Virginia Central, including Blue Ridge Rail-road	98	75
Virginia and Tennessee	10	195
Orange and Alexandria, including branch to Warrenton, 10 miles	10	90
Richmond, Fred'sb. & Potomac	76	..
Greenville and Roanoke	21	..
Northwestern	..	120

NORTH CAROLINA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Gaston and Raleigh	87	..
*Wilmington and Manchester	..	162
Wilmington and Weldon	162	..
North Carolina Centre	..	223

SOUTH CAROLINA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
South Carolina Railroad	241	..
Greenville and Columbia	54	111
Charlotte and South Carolina	45	65
King's Mountain	..	25
Laurens	..	31
Spartanburgh and Union	..	66

MISSISSIPPI.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Raymond	7	..
St. Francisville and Woodville	28	..
Vicksburgh and Brandon	60	..
Mobile and Ohio	..	273
Memphis and Charleston	..	..

GEORGIA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Central	191	..
Georgia	175	..
Macon and Western	101	..
Western and Atlantic	140	..
South-Western	51	..
Rome Branch	17	..
Muscogee	..	71
Atlanta and Westpoint	40	47
Milledgeville	..	18
Eatonton and Milledgeville	..	22
Wilkes	..	18

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* Part of this Line is in South Carolina.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Athens Branch	39	..
Waynesboro'	..	53

ALABAMA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Montgomery and Westpoint	88	..
Mobile and Ohio	33	29½
Alabama and Tennessee	..	160
Tuscumbia, Courtland & Decatur	44	..
Memphis and Charleston	..	..

LOUISIANA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Carrollton	6	..
Clinton and Port Hudson	24	..
Lake Pontchartrain	6	..
Mexican Gulf	27	..

TENNESSEE.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Nashville and Chattanooga	70	89
East Tennessee and Georgia	42	68
East Tennessee and Virginia	..	130
*Memphis and Charleston	..	281½
Winchester and Huntsville	..	60
Mobile and Ohio	..	119½

KENTUCKY.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Frankfort and Lexington	28	..
Louisville and Frankfort	65	..
Maysville and Lexington	..	70
Covington and Lexington	..	78
Lexington and Danville	..	37
Louisville and Nashville	..	180
Mobile and Ohio	..	39½

MISSOURI.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Pacific	..	315
Hannibal and St. Joseph	..	200

OHIO.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Cleveland and Columbus	135	..
Columbus and Lake Erie	61	..
Dayton and Springfield Branch	24	..
Findlay	16	..
Little Miami	84	..
Mad River	134	..
Sandusky and Mansfield	56	..
Xenia and Columbus	54	..
Bellefontaine and Indiana	..	118
Cincinnati and Marietta	..	188
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	98	..
Cleveland, Norwalk and Toledo	..	87
Clevel., Painesville & Ashtabula	..	71½
Columbus, Urbana and Piqua	..	93
Cinc., Wilmington & Zanesville	..	160
Cincinnati, Hamilton & Dayton	60	..
Dayton and Western	..	35½
Dayton and Xenia	..	15
Greenville and Miami	..	40
Hamilton and Eaton	..	36
Hillsboro'	..	37
Iron	..	50
Junction	..	110½
Ohio and Indiana	..	126
Ohio and Mississippi	..	20
Ohio and Pennsylvania	81	104
Ohio Central	25	125
Scioto and Hocking Valley	..	120
Steubenville and Indiana	..	121
Pittsburgh and Cincinnati	..	110
Dayton and Michigan	..	25
Eaton and Piqua	..	30
Hudson and Akron Branch	..	50
Franklin and Warren Branch	..	30

INDIANA.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
New-Albany and Salem (with Branch around Lake Michigan of 54 miles)	117	279
Jeffersonville	50	16
Madison and Indianapolis	86	..
Shelbyville Branch	16	..
Rushville Branch	20	..
Knightstown Branch	27	..
Lawrenceburgh & Indianapolis	..	90½
Indiana Central	..	71½
Richmond	..	4
New Castle and Richmond	..	27
Indianapolis and Bellefontaine	43	41
Peru and Indianapolis	23½	50
Lafayette and Indianapolis	..	68
Crawfordville	26	..
Terre Haute and Indianapolis	72	..
Evansville and Illinois	26	24
Martinsville Branch	..	29
Indiana Northern	100	35
Extens. of the Greenv. & Miami	..	10
Ohio and Mississippi	..	160

ILLINOIS.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Illinois Central	..	699
Galena and Chicago	94	88
Rock Island and Chicago	..	180½
Central Military Tract	..	125
Peoria and Oquawka	..	100
Ohio and Mississippi	..	145
Northern Cross Road	..	54
Sangamon and Morgan	54	..

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* This includes that part of the route which passes through the States of Mississipp and Alabama.

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Alton and Sangamon	..	72
Aurora Branch	13	..
St. Charles	7	..
O'Fallon's Coal Road	8	..
MICHIGAN.		
Central	228	..
Southern	133	..
Pontiac	25	..
Tecumseh Branch	8	..

NAMES OF RAILWAYS.	Miles in operation.	Miles in construction.
Erie and Kalamazoo	33	..
WISCONSIN.		
Milwaukee and Mississippi	20	180
Fond duLac & Rock Island Valley	.	241
TEXAS.		
Buffalo, Bayou and Brazos	..	32

Total number of miles in operation and in course of construction in the U. S.

	Miles in operation.	Miles in progress.	Total.
Maine	315	128	442
New-Hampshire	489½	47	536½
Vermont	380	59	439
Massachusetts	1089	67	1156

	Miles in operation.	Miles in progress.	Total.
Rhode Island	50	32	82
Connecticut	547	261	808
Total in N. E.	2870½	593	3463½

	Miles in operation.	Miles in progress.	Total.
New-York	1826	744	2571
New-Jersey	226	111	337
Pennsylvania	1146	774	1920
Delaware	16	11	27
Maryland	376	125	501
Virginia	478	818	1296
North Carolina	249	385	634
South Carolina	340	298	638
Georgia	754	229	983
Alabama	121	189½	310½
Mississippi	93	273	366
Louisiana	63	—	63

	Miles in operation.	Miles in progress.	Total.
Texas	—	32	32
Tennessee	112	748	860
Kentucky	93	404½	497
Ohio	828	1892½	2720½
Michigan	427	—	427
Indiana	600	905	1505
Illinois	176	1463	1639
Missouri	—	515	515
Wisconsin	20	421	441
Total in Middle, W. &. S. States,	10,814½	10878½	21693

2.—INFLUENCE OF RAIL-ROADS.

Sir,—The influence which rail-roads exert in promoting the business of cities, extending their intercourse, and raising the value of the property within and around them, has become so marked in its results, and the prosperity depending upon them so palpable, that it would seem to be surplusage to attempt to demonstrate it. In attempting it, the mere affluence of facts which present themselves, offers the first difficulty to be encountered. He who for a moment reflects upon the nature of industry, the necessity of traffic and the modes of conducting it, perceives at once, that the time and labor employed in the transportation are the greatest difficulties encountered by the productive worker. The larger the cost of interchanging any two articles, the less of each will the producers have to consume for themselves. Inasmuch as that the articles required for consumption are the only incentives to production, (and there can be no wealth without production,) every thing which tends to enhance the quantities of commodities obtained in exchange of any result of industry, directly encourages production and advances the general wealth. Prompt and cheap transportation is the most effective agent in this view. Hence we find in all sections where rail-roads have been most freely used, that the general wealth increases far more rapidly through the operation of rail-roads, than is absorbed in the construction. This result of rail-road operation—so entirely different from what selfish prejudices formerly predicted from them—has effectually removed most of the rivalry of even opposing lines, because each finds, in the business evolved by the other, an enhancement of its own property.

When rail-roads, now something more than twenty years since, were first sought to be generally introduced in England, they were very bitterly opposed by large classes, on the ground, that an immense amount of human industry connected with land carriages would be thrown out of employment, and a vast number of horses rendered useless. The facts here demolish the fallacy. Where rail-roads most freely abound, labor of both men and horses is most in demand, and, consequently, trade most active and property most valuable. Perhaps the best illustration of this tendency is in New-England. It is known that the soil of those six states is very sterile in its nature, and but illy rewards the labor of the farmer; nevertheless, where the Hudson River on the west bounded the accessible portions of western lands, the agriculture of New-England flourished. On the opening of the Erie canal, all the prolific lands of western New-York became, by cheapened transportation, as accessible to Boston as had before been the lands of western Massachusetts. A change in the industry of New-England resulted. The farmers migrated to the new lands of the west, and those who remained turned their attention more to manufacturing industry, but with limited means, because internal transportation was wanting in New-England.

The opening of the northern New-York line of rail-roads, with the increased steam navigation of the lakes, gave a further impetus to migration from New-England in the ten years ending with 1840. With the commencement of the decade ending with 1850, rail-roads began to multiply, and their effects have been marvelous. Notwithstanding the vast increase in the population of the western states, the activity imparted to industry in New-England, by the operation of rail-roads, has been such as to keep her people at home; and while their numbers have increased in a ratio greater than before, the valuation of property, *per head*, has *increased* fifty per cent. To illustrate, we will omit the state of Maine, where there were comparatively no rail-roads, and where there has been a consequent decrease of proportionate increase. The population of the new North-western states as compared with the New-England states, omitting Maine, has been as follows:

	INCREASE.		INCREASE.		INCREASE.	
	1830.	Per cent.	1840.	Per cent.	1850.	Per cent.
New-England	1,555,262	15	1,733,029	11	2,144,918	24
N. Western	1,470,018	85	2,967,840	102	4,721,430	59

An immense change in the New-England population is apparent; and if we analyze it, we shall find the causes of the change more apparent. Thus, in the five states of New-England there is one mile of rail-road to every eleven miles of surface; and, in the three states, Massachusetts, Rhode Island and Connecticut, where the greatest increase in population has taken place, there is one mile of rail-road to every seven and a half of surface. But the focus of all the increase has been the four counties of Massachusetts, including Boston. These counties have one mile of rail-road to every four miles of surface, while in England and Wales there is but one mile of rail-road to every ten miles of surface. The population of these four counties has advanced forty-seven per cent. in the last ten years, and their taxable wealth, as compared with the rest of Massachusetts, is as follows:

	FOUR COUNTIES		REST OF STATE.	
	Population.	Valuation.	Population.	Valuation.
1840	350,511	194,228,813	368,081	105,650,516
1850	516,212	399,637,047	505,632	190,894,834
Increase	265,701	$205,408,234	237,581	$85,244,318

This is a result which may well gratify the friends of rail-road enterprise, and induce all interests to regard in them the agent of general prosperity.

We may now take Boston alone for these periods, viz: 1840, 1845, 1850, showing the miles of rail-road open in Massachusetts at each period, the population of Boston, and the value of real and personal estate in the city.

	1840.	1845.	1850.
Population	98,383	$114,366	138,788
Real estate	$60,424,200	$81,991,400	$105,093,400
Personal estate	34,157,200	53,957,300	74,907,100
Personal estate, per head,	350	470	610
Miles rail-road open	241	512	1,130

Thus, while the numbers of the people have risen more than forty per cent., the personal property, per head, has nearly doubled.

If we now take Worcester, the county where many of the rail-roads coming from Albany, New-Haven, Norwich, Providence, Nashua and Vermont, from every point of the compass meet and form connections for the prompt and speedy transition of freight and passengers, without delay or expense, to Boston—if they wish to go there—we find results not the less satisfactory.

Worcester.	Population.	Valuation.	Per head.
1840	95,313	$29,804,316	$310
1850	130,789	55,497,793	420

Now, if we look at Barnstable county, in which there are no rail-roads, we find the population increased from 32,500 to 35,276, or seven per cent. only, and the valuation is $250 per head! or, about one-half that of the inland rail-road county. What now results from these facts? Why, the rail-roads of Massachusetts have cost $50,000,000, and the wealth of the state has increased $300,000,000, or, six times the amount in ten years. That is to say, from the landing at Plymouth to 1840, two hundred years elapsed, in which time the wealth of Massachusetts reached $299,878,327. Ten years of rail-roads have added a sum equal to the whole results of those two hundred years. Is not that a *rail-road pace?* The general lesson was not lost on so shrewd a people, viz: that the greater the facility, the more general business was profitable. Whatever impedes facility of transportation injures all interests. This became an axiom, and all the rivalry of rail-roads, as well as the petty prejudices which would impede their action, disappeared. Thus, from every point of the compass, rail-roads enter Boston, but none pass *into it* for lack of room. Thus, the outskirts, of the city are dotted with depots like a circle of fortresses, and the transportation from one to the other is across the city by carts, and is expensive and tedious, although it employs numbers of men and horses. To remedy that, a "junction rail-road" encircles the city from depot to depot, in order that the trains coming from Maine on the north, may deliver freight to the trains for the south. It is a facility which the general interest demanded. It is one detailed system which experience compelled all the rail-roads of England to adopt, viz: a perfect connection of all their business. Thus, there are forty-five companies having eight hundred and eighty-seven stations; *at any one of these stations traffic may be booked for any other.* There are, therefore, four thousand places in the circle of operation perfectly connected, and the traffic on all is so regulated by tickets and accounts, that each company receives its full pay for the work done on its line, whether for passengers or goods, and the final settlement is made in London, and is done without error, although in order to facilitate transportation, the cars of one company run upon the rails of another when necessary. This singularly ingenious system was the result of the want of the most perfect connection so imperiously felt by the community at large.

The effects of rail-road influence, so marked in the official returns of Massachusetts, are equally manifest in other localities. The Erie Rail-road of New-York has been in operation but fifty-three miles until within the last ten years, yet its influence upon population is as follows:

POPULATION OF NEW-YORK.

	1840.	1850.	Inc. per cent.
New-York city and Brooklyn	360,546	654,293	80
Rail-road counties	329,545	415,018	26
Canal "	674,412	797,119	18½
North River "	468,353	541,764	16
Other "	596,694	691,055	16
Total state	2,429,550	3,099,249	

The county of Rockland, which terminates the road on the North River, has increased in the greatest proportion, but that road is now just beginning to produce its influence upon the interior counties. Its effect upon the city has long been felt in the supplies of fresh provisions which its furnishes. A few items may be taken, as follows:

DELIVERED BY THE ERIE RAIL-ROAD.

	Milk, quarts.	Butter, lbs.	Sheep and Lambs, lbs.	Poultry, lbs.
1845	6,227,288	3,562,150	809,870	150
1846	7,090,384	3,678,440	749,390	950
1849	9,480,576	5,126,423	2,044,703	2,150
1851	12,474,172	13,241,750	7,741,520	2,653,432

It is by this means that the distant lands, before inaccessible, are now brought to the supply of fresh daily food for the citizens, and a year's savings in the cost, to say nothing of qualities, would *build the road.* The lands through which the road runs being thus productive, causes a demand for large supplies of goods from the city in return, and the materials for manufacturers also become available.

As we follow the progress of rail-roads in the Western states, similar results appear.

Thus, from Chicago, in Ill., the rail-road runs northwest to Galena, through thirteen counties of the state. That is a purely agricultural district, and it labors under the disadvantage of having to contend, in the sale of its produce, with the older states nearer to the market; nevertheless, the progress of the counties has been as follows:

	1840.	1850.	Increase
Population	46,992	163,417	116,425
Valuation	$3,630,040	$21,942,239	$17,312,179
" per head	$77.25	$134.27	$51

The increase of population for this portion of the state has been 279 per cent. In the eleven counties through which the canal runs, 109 per cent.; and in the remaining seventy-five counties of the state, 53 per cent. only.

This influence of locomotion upon general and local property is so great, and has been in so many localities so fully developed, as to be universally recognized, North and West, and it promotes, in a continually increasing ratio, the disposition to invest funds in such undertakings.

It will be observed, that the objects to be attained by rail-road connections are the straight communication between given points, the prompt delivery, and at the smallest cost. Those roads which attain these objects take all the business, and are above competition. Where the chain of communication on any route is broken by faulty connections, the expense and delay attending such a state of affairs, is a direct premium for the establishment of rival routes. This small pandering to insignificant interests was, at first, a drawback in Massachusetts upon the success of undertakings, but very soon all came to understand that the completeness of communication, as far as it could by any possibility be perfected, was the true interest of all parties. It is by that the general interest is subserved, and consequently, although some of minor importance may change the direction of their energies, they benefit ultimately in the common prosperity.

Yours, very truly,

THOMAS P. KETTELL.

3.—AMERICAN RAIL-ROADS.

The Superintendent of the Census, J. C. G. Kennedy, Esq., having, at the request of the French Department of Public Works, and at very considerable labor, prepared the subjoined able and comprehensive statistical view of the extent of American rail-roads, as well as those in course of construction as those contemplated and in operation, he has kindly permitted us, says the National Intelligencer, to take a copy of it for publication:

CENSUS OFFICE, Washington, March 1, 1852.

In compliance with your request, I proceed to answer your inquiries concerning rail-roads in the United States.

The number of miles of rail-roads in operation in the United States, January 1st, 1852, was, as nearly as can be ascertained, 10,814½. At the same time there was in course of construction an extent of rail-road amounting, according to the most reliable estimates, to 10,898½ miles. By far the greater portion of the lines commenced, but now incomplete, will be finished within the ensuing five years. The length of rail-road brought into operation since January 1, 1848, is 5,224 miles. Within the last year 2,153 miles have been finished. Nearly all the lines in progress have been commenced since 1848. It is supposed that from one thousand to fifteen hundred miles, additional to the 10,898 now known to be in progress, will be put under contract during 1852.

There never existed greater activity in the making of rail-roads in the United States than at the present time. Many of the lines projected have taken the place of plans for the construction of canals and turnpike roads. Accordingly, these works of public improvement are not prosecuted with the same ardor and energy as formerly, although much activity exists in the construction of plank roads. The labor and capital which they would require are absorbed in the numerous and almost colossal rail-roads building. Since 1848, the extent of rail-road opened for travel and transportation has nearly doubled, and there is reason to believe that the increase in the length of road brought into use will not be less rapid during the next period of four years. By the year 1860 we may expect that the territory of the United States will be traversed by at least 30,000 miles of rail-road.

It is very difficult to form an estimate of the average expense per mile of building rail-roads in the United States. In fact no average can be assumed as applicable to the whole country. The cost of the roads in New-England is about $45,000 per mile; in New-York, Pennsylvania and Maryland, about $40-000. But in the interior of these states the surface of the country is broken, rendering the cost of grading very heavy; and nearer the sea, wide and deep streams interrupt the lines of travel, and make the expense of bridging a serious item.

In New-England, and the more densely inhabited parts of the old states, from the Atlantic, as in all European countries, the extinguishment of private titles to the real estate required for rail-roads, frequently forms a large part of the expenses included in the item of construction. In the southern states, and the valley of the Mississippi, $20,000 per mile is considered a safe estimate. There, in most cases, all the lands necessary for the purposes of the companies are given to them in consideration of the advantages which private proprietors expect from the location of the roads in the vicinity of their estates.

In many of the western states the cost of grading a long line of road does not exceed $1,000 per mile—the cost of the timber amounting to nothing more than the expense of clearing it from the track. For these reasons the expense of building rail-roads in the southern and western states is now much less than it will be when the country becomes as densely settled as the older states of the Union.

The Central Rail-Road of Illinois is an enterprise which furnishes a remarkable example of the energy and spirit of improvement in the new states. Illinois was admitted into the confederation as a state in 1818, with 30,000 inhabitants. It has 55,405 square miles of territory, and a population, according to the census of 1850, of 851,470. The Central Rail-road is to extend from its southwestern extremity, at the confluence of the Mississippi and Ohio rivers, to the north line of the state, with two diverging branches. The total length of this road, including the main stem and branches, is to be six hundred and eighty miles. The cost is estimated at $20,000 per mile, or $10,000,000 for the entire work, without equipments for operating it. This is the longest continuous line of road now in contemplation in the United States, of which there is any probability of speedy completion. It has been commenced with such facilities for executing the plans of its projectors, that there is no reasonable doubt that it will be finished within a few years.

Mr. Asa Whitney proposes to construct a rail-road from St. Louis, or some other place on the Mississippi River, to the Pacific Ocean, terminating either at San Francisco, in California, or at the mouth of the Columbia River, in Oregon. He solicits the patronage of the National Government for this prodigious work, and petitions for the grant of land equal in extent to sixty miles in width to two thousand miles in length. His plans were first laid before Congress in 1842, and he has since been continually occupied in recommending them to the favorable attention of the government and the people with great ability and zeal; but with what success remains yet to be seen. Without expressing any view with reference thereto, it may be said that his project is generally considered impracticable, from the fact that of the two thousand miles of territory which his route across the territory must traverse, a large portion consists of desert or of sterile and very elevated mountain districts, in which can be found no materials of construction, and which would afford no business for the support of the road, were the difficulties of building it overcome. Many intelligent men, however, are convinced of its practicability and expediency.

The rail-road system of the United States may be considered to have commenced in 1830. The first one put in operation was a short road built for transportation of ice from a small lake to the sea, in the state of Massachusetts. The length of this work was four miles. It was finished in 1830. In the same year the state of South Carolina caused to be commenced a rail-road from Charleston, its principal port, to Augusta, in Georgia. The distance is 135 miles. The work was finished in 1833, at the very remarkably small cost of $1,336,615, which sum included also the expenses of furnishing the road with engines and passenger and freight cars, and all other necessary equipments. This was the first road of any considerable length constructed in the United States, and it is believed to have been the cheapest and one of the most successful.

The longest continuous line of rail-road in the world, and that in the construction of which the greatest natural obstacles have been overcome, is that which extends from the Hudson River, through the southern counties of New-York, to Lake Erie. Its length is four hundred and sixty-nine miles, and it has branches of an aggregate additional length of sixty-eight miles. Nearly its whole course is through a region of mountains. The bridges by which it is carried over the Delaware and Susquehanna rivers and other streams, and the viaducts upon which it crosses the valleys that intercept its route, are among the noblest monuments of power and skill to be found in our country. The most of these works are of heavy masonry, but one of them is a wooden bridge, one hundred and eighty-four feet in height, and having but one arch, the span of which is two hundred and seventy-five feet. One of the viaducts is 1,200 feet long, and 110 feet high. The aggregate cost of this important work was $23,580,000, and the expense of construction was $43,393 per mile. The road was originally suggested in 1829; a company was organized in 1832; surveys were made in the same year, and operations were begun by grading a part of the route in 1833. It was finished in May, 1851, and opened with great ceremony for travel and transportation in that month. The state advanced six millions of dollars towards the work, and afterwards released the company from the obligation to pay the loan. It will thus be seen that the execution of this great improvement was pursued through nineteen years, and it was not accomplished without calling into requisition both the resources of the state and the means of her citizens.

In the infancy of the American rail-road system, and for ten years thereafter, it was the rule to extend to every important enterprise of that character the assistance of the state in which it was to be built.

Pennsylvania, Michigan, Illinois, Mississippi, and some other states, adopted extensive systems of improvements, consisting of rail-roads and canals, which they pursued until their credit failed; an event which happened in most cases before any of the works had been completed and brought into profitable use. But the general practice was to charter companies, each of which was charged with the execution of some particular work, and to aid them by loans of state stocks. Although this practice has fallen into so much disfavor in some of the states that the citizens have incorporated in their constitutions articles prohibiting advances by their legislatures for such purposes, it is yet continued by others, and Virginia, Tennessee and other states are now prosecuting expensive works, considered essential to their prosperity, by means of advances from their respective treasuries.

In the year 1850, Congress passed an act, after a very protracted discussion, granting to the State of Illinois about 2,700,000 acres of public lands to aid in the construction of the Central Rail-Road, to which allusion has been before made. This magnificent donation is reckoned by the company to which Illinois has confided the building of the road, to be worth $18,000,000. This was the first instance in which the aid of the National Government had been extended to a rail-road project.

But since the above grant, innumerable applications have been made from all the new states for cessions of land for rail-road purposes. Whether such further aid shall be extended, is now a much-agitated question in American politics. Bills are pending in Congress proposing to cede for these purposes about 20,000,000 acres.

The following table presents, in a convenient form, some of the principal facts connected with rail-roads in the United States on the first of January, 1852:

States with Rail-roads in operation or in process of construction.	Miles of Rail-road completed and in operation.	Miles of Rail-road in course of construction.	Area of the States in square miles.	Population in 1850.	No. inhabitants to the square mile.
Maine	315	127	30,000	583,188	19,44
N. Hampshire	489	47	9,280	317,964	34,26
Vermont	380	59	10,312	314,120	30,76
Massachusetts	1,039	67	7,800	994,499	127,49
Rhode Island	50	32	1,306	147,544	112,97
Connecticut	547	261	4,674	370,791	79,33
New-York	1,826	745	46,000	3,097,394	67,33
New-Jersey	226	111	8,320	489,555	58,84
Pennsylvania	1,146	774	46,000	2,311,786	50,25
Delaware	16	11	2,120	91,535	43,17
Maryland	376	125	9,356	583,035	62,31
Virginia	478	818	61,352	1,421,661	23,17
North Carolina	249	385	45,000	868,903	19,20
South Carolina	340	298	24,500	668,507	27,28
Georgia	754	129	58,000	905,999	15,62
Alabama	121	190	50,722	771,671	15,21
Mississippi	93	273	47,156	606,555	12,86
Louisiana	63	—	46,431	517,739	11,15
Texas	—	32	237,321	212,592	89
Tennessee	112	748	45,600	1,002,625	21,98
Kentucky	93	414	37,680	982,405	26,07
Ohio	828	1,892	39,964	1,980,408	49,55
Michigan	427	—	56,243	397,654	7,07
Indiana	600	915	33,809	988,416	29,23
Illinois	176	1,409	55,405	851,470	15,36
Missouri	—	515	67,380	682,043	10,12
Wisconsin	20	421	53,924	305,191	5,65
	10,814	10,898			

Nearly parallel to the Atlantic coast of the United States, from Maine to Alabama, runs the range of mountains known as the Alleghany or Appalachian chain. The eastern bases of these mountains are not distant from the seaboard more than a hundred miles, and they form a very formidable obstacle to the construction of rail-roads between the great eastern cities and the interior. In nearly all the great enterprises which have been undertaken with the view to effect such connection, great additional expense has been incurred to overcome or to penetrate this mountain barrier. In the plan first adopted for the general system of state improvements in Pennsylvania, it was proposed to effect the crossing of the Alleghanies by means of inclined planes, with powerful stationary engines at their summits. The planes were built, and have been used for several years, until experience proved their operation was too slow and too expensive to maintain a successful competition with other methods of conveyance, and other improvements have since been furnished designed to supersede them. The rail-road from Baltimore to the Ohio River is carried over a passage in these mountains where the elevation is upwards of three thousand feet, and a part of that height is overcome by tunnels, varying in length from one-sixteenth to four-fifths of a mile. The road from New-York to Albany, along the banks of the Hudson, has three tunnels. The greatest work of this kind yet proposed in the United States is the tunnel through the Hoosack mountain, which, if executed, will be four miles in length, and fifteen hundred feet below the summit of the ascent. The cost is estimated at $2,000,000. On the road from New-York to Lake Erie, tunnels have been avoided by expensive works, which overcome ascents of 1,400 feet.

No authentic statement has ever been given of the capital invested in the rail-roads of the United States, but we have the means of forming an estimate upon which much reliance may be placed. The rail-roads in operation at the beginning of the present year, may be assumed to have cost $348,000,000. The amount invested in the lines under construction, it is impossible to estimate with even an approximation to correctness. Their cost, when completed, will be considerably less than that of an equal length of road now in operation: for the reason that the greater number of new or unfinished lines are in the West or South, where, as has been shown, the cost of construction is far below what it is in the northern and eastern states.

The management of the American rail-roads is entirely distinct from the administration of government. Their concerns are managed by corporations, which consist of a President, Secretary, and Directors., Each of the Directors must own a certain amount of stock. They are chosen by the body of stockholders, who have votes in proportion to the number of shares they hold. The Directors choose one of their body President, and appoint the Secretary. The President and Secretary have generally liberal salaries, but the services of the Directors are gratuitous.

The rate of the speed on our rail-roads is not so great as on those of England. The ordinary velocity of a passenger train is twenty miles an hour, but on some routes it is as high as twenty-eight and thirty miles. Express trains, on such occasions as the conveyance of the President's message, frequently maintain for a long distance as high a speed as forty-five miles an hour. And one road, that between New-York and Albany, forty-five miles per hour is the regular rate for all passenger trains.

The fares or rates of passage are not uniform. In New-England, the average price per mile for the conveyance of passengers is under two cents; from New-York to Boston, it is two and four-tenths; from New-York to Philadelphia, three and four-tenths; from Philadelphia to Baltimore, three and one-tenth. From New-York to Cincinnati the distance is 857 miles by the northern route, of which 143 miles are traveled by steamboat. The price of passage for the whole distance is $15 50, being slightly under two cents per mile. The lines between Baltimore and Cincinnati, soon to be opened, will be 650 miles in length, and the fare will be $13; that is, two cents per mile.

Believing that the history of the origin, condition, and extent of the rail-roads in the United States form one of the most important subjects of statistical investigation, and one not generally understood, I have devoted a portion of my time to the preparation of a complete history and detailed statement respecting each of the rail-roads in the United States, to accompany the other statistics to be embraced within the seventh census; but, as Congress may exercise their right of abridging the work on this and other subjects, it is impossible, in advance, to say what the census, when published, will contain. I inclose to you herewith a copy of the census of Maryland, prepared in advance, for reasons which will appear in its "preface."

I have the honor to be, sir, with great respect,
Your most obedient servant
JNO. C. G. KENNEDY.

JULES CARTIN, *Minister Public Works, Paris.*

MISCELLANEOUS.

1.—CENSUS STATISTICS U. S., 1850—PROGRESS OF POPULATION AND INDUSTRY, ETC—COMPARATIVE TABLES.

FROM the able Census Report of Mr. Kennedy, we extract the following, and shall continue our extracts as his labors progress:

The seventh enumeration of the inhabitants of the United States exhibits results which every citizen of the country may contemplate with gratification and pride. Since the census of 1840, there have been added to the territory of the republic, by annexation, conquest, and purchase, 824,969 square miles; and our title to a region covering 341,463 square miles, which before properly belonged to us, but was claimed and partially occupied by a foreign power, has been established by negotiation, and it has been brought within our acknowledged boundaries. By such means the area of the United States has been extended, during the past ten years, from 2,055,163 to 3,221,595 square miles, without including the great lakes which lie upon our northern border, or the bays which indent our Atlantic and Pacific shores; all which has come within the scope of the seventh census.

In the endeavor to ascertain the progress of our population since 1840, it will be proper to deduct from the aggregate number of inhabitants shown by the present census, the population of Texas in 1840, and the number embraced within the limits of California and the new Territories, at the time of their acquisition. From the best information which has come to hand, it is believed that Texas contained, in 1840, 75,000 inhabitants; and that when California, New-Mexico, and Oregon, came into our possession, in 1846, they had a population of 97,000. It thus appears that we have received, by accessions of territory, since 1840, an accession of 172,000 to the number of our people.

The increase which has taken place in those extended regions, since they came under the authority of our government, should obviously be reckoned as a part of the development and progress of our population; nor is it necessary to complicate the comparison by taking into account the probable natural increase of this acquired population, because we have not the means of determining the rate of its advancement, nor the law which governed its progress, while yet beyond the influence of our political system. The year 1840, rather than the date of the annexation of Texas, has been taken for estimating her population, in connection with that of the Union, because it may safely be assumed that, whatever the increase during the five intervening years may have been, it was mainly, if not altogether, derived from the United States.

Owing to delays and difficulties mentioned in completing the work, which no action on the part of this office could obviate, some of the returns from California have not yet been received. Assuming the population of California to be 165,000, (which we do partly by estimate,) and omitting that of Utah,* estimated at 12,000, the total number of inhabitants in the United States was, on the 1st of June, 1850, 23,246,301. The absolute increase from the 1st of June, 1840, has been 6,176,848, and the actual increase per cent. is 36.18. But it has been shown that the probable amount of population acquired by additions of territory should be deducted in making a comparison between the results of the present and the last census. These reductions diminish the total population of the country, as a basis of comparison, to 23,074,301, and the increase to 6,004,848. The relative increase, after this allowance, is found to be 35.17 per cent. The aggregate number of whites in 1850 was 19,619,366, exhibiting a gain upon the number of the same class in 1840 of 5,423,371, and a relative increase of 38.20 per cent. But excluding the 153,000 free population supposed to have been acquired by the addition of territory since 1840, the gain is 5,270,371, and the increase per cent. is 37.14.

The number of slaves, by the present census, is 3,198,298, which shows an increase of 711,085, equal to 28,58 per cent. If we deduct 19,000 for the probable slave population of Texas in 1840, the result of the comparison will be slightly different. The absolute increase will be 692,085, and the rate per cent. 27.83.

The number of free colored in 1850, was 428,637; in 1840, 386,245. The increase of this class has been 43,392, or 10.95 per cent.

From 1830 to 1840, the increase of the whole population was at the rate of 32.67 per cent. At the same rate of advancement, the absolute gain for the ten years last past would have been 5,578,333, or 426,515 less than it has been, without including the increase consequent upon additions of territory.

The aggregate increase of population, from all sources, shows a relative advance greater than that of any other decennial term, except that from the second to the third census, during which time the country received an accession of inhabitants, by the purchase of Lousiana, considerably greater than 1 per cent. of the whole number. Rejecting from the census of 1810, 1.45 per cent., for the population of Louisiana, and from the census of 1850, one per cent. for that of Texas, California, &c., the result is in favor of the last ten years by about one-fourteenth of one per cent.; the gain from 1800 to 1810 being

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* Since ascertained to be 11,381.

35.05 per cent.; and from 1840 to 1850, 35.12 per cent. But, without going behind the sum of the returns, it appears that the increase from the second to the third census was thirty-two hundredths of one per cent. greater than the increase from the sixth to the seventh.

The decennial increase of the most favored portions of Europe is less than 1¼ per cent. per annum, while with the United States it is at the rate of 3¼ per cent. According to our past progress, viewed in connection with that of European nations, the population of the United States in forty years will exceed that of England, France, Spain, Portugal, Sweden, and Switzerland, combined.

The relative progress of the several races and classes of the population is shown in the following tabular statement:

Increase per cent. of each class of Inhabitants in the United States for sixty years.

Classes.	1790 to 1800.	1800 to 1810.	1810 to 1820.	1820 to 1830.	1830 to 1840.	1840 to 1850.
Whites	35.7	36.2	34.19	33.95	34.7	38.28
Free colored	82.2	72.2	25.25	36.85	20.9	10.9
Slaves	27.9	33.4	29.1	39.61	23.8	28.58
Total colored	32.2	37.6	28.58	31.44	23.4	26.22
Total population	35.01	36.45	33.12	33.48	32.6	36.25

The census had been taken previously to 1830, on the 1st of August; the enumeration began that year on the 1st of June, two months earlier, so that the interval between the fourth and fifth censuses was two months less than ten years, which time allowed for, would bring the total increase up to the rate of 34.36 per cent.

The table given below shows the increase from 1790 to 1850, without reference to intervening periods:

No. of—	1790.	1850.	Absolute increase in sixty years.	Increase per cent. in sixty years.
Whites	3,172,464	19,638,019	16,457,555	527.97
Free colored	59,466	428,637	369,171	617.44
Slaves	697,897	3,184,262	2,486,365	350.13
Total free colored and slaves	757,363	3,612,899	2,855,536	377.00
Total population	3,929,827	23,246,301	19,316,444	491.52

Sixty years since, the proportion between the whites and blacks, bond and free, was 4.2 to 1. In 1850, it was 5.26 to 1, and the ratio in favor of the former race is increasing. Had the blacks increased as fast as the whites during these sixty years, their number, on the first June, would have been 4,657,239; so that, in comparison with the whites, they have lost, in this period, 1,035,340.

This disparity is much more than accounted for by European emigration to the United States. Dr. Chickering, in an essay upon emigration, published at Boston in 1848—distinguished for great elaborateness of research—estimates the gain of the white population, from this source, at 3,922,152. No reliable record was kept of the number of emigrants into the United States until 1820, when, by the law of March, 1819, the collectors were required to make quarterly returns of foreign passengers arriving in their districts. For the first ten years, the returns under the law afford materials for only an approximation to a true state of the facts involved in this inquiry.

Dr. Chickering assumes, as a result of his investigations, that of the 6,431,088 inhabitants of the United States in 1820, 1,430,906 were foreigners, arriving subsequent to 1790, or the descendants of such. According to Dr. Seybert, an earlier writer upon statistics, the number of foreign passengers, from 1790 to 1810, was, as nearly as could be ascertained, 120,000; and from the estimates of Dr. Seybert, and other evidence, Hon. George Tucker, author of a valuable work on the census of 1840, supposes the number from 1810 to 1820, to have been 114,000. These estimates make, for the thirty years preceding 1820, 234,000.

If we reckon the increase of these emigrants at the average rate of the whole body of white population during these three decades, they and their descendants, in 1820, would amount to about 360,000. From 1820 to 1830, there arrived, according to the returns of the custom-houses, 135,986 foreign passengers, and from 1830 to 1840, 579,370, making for the twenty years 715,356. During this period, a large number of emigrants from England, Scotland and Ireland came into the United States through Canada. Dr. Chickering estimates the number of such from 1820 to 1830, at 67,993; and from 1830 to 1840, at 199,130—for the twenty years together, 267,123. During the same time, a considerable number are supposed to have landed at New-York with the purpose of pursuing their route to Canada; but it is probable that the number of these was balanced by the omissions in the official returns.

From 1840 to 1850, the arrivals of foreign passengers, in the ports of the United States, have been as follows:

1840–'41	83,504	1847	234,756
1842	101,107	1848	226,524
1843	75,159	1849	269,610
1844	74,607	1850†	173,011
1845	102,415		
1846*	202,157	Total	1,542,850

Within the last ten years there has probably been comparatively little immigration of foreigners into the United States over the Canada frontier; the disposition to take the route by Quebec having yielded to the increased facilities for direct passenger transportation to the cities of the Union; what there has been may, perhaps, be considered as equaled by the number of foreigners passing into Canada, after landing at New-York, many having been drawn thither by the opportunities of employment afforded by the public works of the province. As the heaviest portion of this great influx of emigration took place in the latter half of the decade, it will probably be fair to estimate the natural increase during the term, at twelve per cent., being about one third of that of the white population of the country at its commencement.

Taking for granted the substantial correctness of the above estimates, and the accuracy of the returns during the last ten years, the following statement will show the accessions to our population from emigration from 1790 to 1850:

Number of foreigners arriving from 1790 to 1810	120,000
Natural increase, reckoned in periods of ten years	47,560
Number of foreigners arriving from 1810 to 1820	114,000
Increase of the above to 1820	19,000
Increase from 1810 to 1820 of those arriving previous to 1810	58,450
Total number of emigrants and descendants of immigrants in 1820	359,010
Number of immigrants arriving from 1820 to 1830	203,979
Increase of the above	35,728
Increase from 1820 to 1830 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the country in 1820	134,130
Total number of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1830	732,847
Number of immigrants arriving from 1830 to 1840	778,500
Increase of the above	135,150
Increase from 1830 to 1840 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1830	254,445
Total number of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1840	1,900,942
Number of immigrants arriving from 1840 to 1850	1,542,850
Increase of the above at twelve per cent	185,142
Increase from 1840 to 1850 of immigrants and descendants of immigrants in the United States in 1840	722,000
Total number of immigrants into the United States since 1790, and their descendants in 1850	4,350,934

The density of population is a branch of the subject which naturally attracts the attention of the inquirer. The following table has been prepared from the most authentic data accessible to this office:

Table of the Area and the number of Inhabitants to the square mile in each State and Territory in the Union.

State.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1850.	No. of inhabitants to sq. m.	State.	Area in square miles.	Population in 1850.	No. of inhabitants to sq. m.
Maine	30,000	583,188	19.44	Kentucky	37,680	982,405	26.07
New-Hampshire	9,280	317,964	34.26	Tennessee	45,600	1,002,625	21.98
Vermont	10,212	313,611	30.07	Missouri	67,380	682,043	10.12
Massachusetts	7,800	994,499	126.11	Arkansas	52,198	209,639	4.01
Rhode Island	1,306	147,544	108.05	Ohio	39,964	1,980,408	49.55
Connecticut	4,674	370,791	79.83	Indiana	33,809	988,416	29.23
New-York	46,000	3,097,394	67.66	Illinois	55,405	851,470	15.37
New-Jersey	8,320	489,555	60.04	Michigan	56,243	397,654	7.07
Pennsylvania	46,000	2,311,786	50.25	Iowa	50,914	192,214	3.77
Delaware	2,120	91,535	43.64	Wisconsin	53,924	305,191	5.65
Maryland	9,356	583,035	62.31	California	188,982	-	-
Virginia	61,352	1,421,661	23.17	Minnesota	83,000	6,077	.07
North Carolina	45,000	868,903	19.30	Oregon	341,463	13,293	.03
South Carolina	24,500	668,507	27.28	New-Mexico	219,774	61,505	.28
Georgia	58,000	905,999	15.68	Utah	187,923	11,381	-
Alabama	50,722	771,671	15.21	Nebraska	136,700	-	-
Mississippi	47,156	606,555	12.86	Indian	187,171	-	-
Louisiana	46,431	511,974	11.02	North West	587,564	-	-
Texas	237,321	212,592	.89	District of Columbia	60	51,687	861.45
Florida	59,268	87,401	1.47				

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* This return includes fifteen months, from July 1, 1845, to 30th September, 1846.

† The report from the State Department for this year, gives 315,333, as the total number of passengers arriving in the United States; but of these, 30,023 were citizens of the Atlantic States proceeding to California by sea, and 5,320 natives of the country returning from visits abroad. A deduction of 106,879 is made from the balance, for that portion of the year from June 1 to September 30.

From the location, climate, and productions, and the habits and pursuits of their inhabitants, the states of the Union may be properly arranged into the following groups: [For table, see below.]

There are points of agreement in the general characteristics of the states combined in the following groups, which warrant the mode of arrangement adopted. Maryland is classed, as heretofore, with the middle states, because its leading interests appear to connect it rather with the commercial and manufacturing section to which it is here assigned, than with the purely agricultural states. Ohio is placed in the same connection for nearly similar reasons.

There seems to be a marked propriety for setting off the new agricultural states of the north-west by themselves, as a preliminary to the comparison of their progress with other portions of the Union. The occupations which give employment to the people of the central range of states south of the line of the Potomac, distinguish them to some extent from that division to which we have given the appellation of the coast planting states. In the latter, cotton, sugar, and rice are the great staples, the cultivation of which is so absorbing as to stamp its impress on the character of the people. The industry of the central states is more diversified, the surface of the country is more broken, the modes of cultivation are different, and the minuter divisions of labor create more numerous and less accordant interests. So far as Texas is settled, its population closely assimilates with that of the other coast planting states; but it would obviously convey no well-founded idea of the density of population in that section to distribute their people over the vast uninhabited region of Texas. For the same reason, and the additional one of the isolation of her position, California is considered distinct from other states.

Taking the thirty-one states together, their area is 1,485,870 square miles, and the average number of their inhabitants is 15.48 to the square mile. The total area of the United States is 3,220,000 square miles, and the average density of population is 7.219 to the square mile.

The areas assigned to those states and territories in which public lands are situated, are doubtless correct, being taken from the records of the Land Office; but, as to those attributed to the older states, the same means of verifying their accuracy, or the want of it, do not exist. But care has been taken to consult the best local authorities for ascertaining the extent of surface in those states; and as the figures adopted are found to agree with, or differ but slightly from those assumed to be correct at the General Land Office, it is probable they do not vary essentially from the exact truth.

The area of some of the states, as Maryland and Virginia, are stated considerably below the commonly-assumed extent of their territory, which may be accounted for from the supposition that the portions of the surface within their exterior limits covered by large bodies of water, have been subtracted from the aggregate amount. This is known to be the case in regard to Maryland, the superficial extent of which, within the outlines of its boundaries, is 13,959 square miles; and is deemed probable with reference to Virginia, from the fact that many geographers have given its total area as high as 66,000 square miles.

It appears from the returns, that during the year ending on the first of June, 1850, there escaped from their owners one thousand and eleven slaves, and that during the same period fourteen hundred and sixty-seven were manumitted. The number of both classes will appear in the following table:

Manumitted and Fugitive Slaves—1850.

	Manumitted.	Fugitives.		Manumitted.	Fugitives.
Delaware	277	26	Alabama	16	29
Maryland	493	279	Mississippi	6	41
Virginia	218	83	Louisiana	159	90
Kentucky	152	96	Texas	5	29
Tennessee	45	70	Arkansas	1	21
North Carolina	2	64	Missouri	50	60
South Carolina	2	16			
Georgia	19	89	Totals	1,467	1,011
Florida	22	18			

[Table referred to above.]

	Acres in square miles.	Population.	No. inhab. to sq. m.
New-England States (6)	63,226	2,727,597	43.07
Middle States, including Maryland, Delaware and Ohio, (6)	151,760	8,653,713	57.02
Coast Planting States, including South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, (6)	286,077	3,537,089	12.36
Central Slave States: Virginia, North Carolina, Tennessee, Kentucky, Missouri, Arkansas, (6)	308,210	5,168,000	16.75
Northwestern States: Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Iowa, (5)	250,000	2,735,000	10.92
Texas	237,000	212,000	.89
California	189,000	165,000	.87

In connection with this statement, as affecting the natural increase of the free colored population of the United States, it may be proper to remark, that during the year to which the census applies, the Colonization Society sent 562 colored emigrants to Liberia. In our calculations respecting the increase of the free colored population, we have considered that class of persons independent of these two causes which respectively swell and diminish their number.

MORTALITY.

The statistics of mortality for the census year, represent the number of deaths occurring within the year as 320,194, the ratio being as one to 72.6 of the living population, or as ten to each 726 of the population. The rate of mortality in this statement, taken as a whole, seems so much less than that of any portion of Europe, that it must, at present, be received with some degree of allowance.

Should a more critical examination, which time will enable us to exercise, prove the returns of the number of deaths too small, such a result will not affect their value, for the purposes of comparison of one portion of the country with another, or cause with effect—the table will possess an interest second to none other in the work, and the many valuable truths which they will suggest, will be found of great practical advantage. Medical men will accord to the Census Board no small meed of credit, for the wisdom manifested in an arrangement which will throw more light on the history of disease in the United States, and present in connection more interesting facts connected therewith, than the united efforts of all scientific men have heretofore accomplished.

The registration of the annual deaths, as well as of the living, marks an epoch in the history of "life contingencies" in the United States. To trace the effect of the wide range of physical features and natural productions upon the human constitution and faculties, presents to every reflecting mind an interesting field of research. Likewise, to investigate the influence of mental occupations and industrial pursuits, and of the wide diversity of climate—from the highlands of Maine to the everglades of Florida—upon the persistence and duration of life, is an object of permanent importance, not only in a scientific, but in a commercial and national point of view. For all such inquiries, the returns of 1850 furnish facilities, less satisfactory indeed than would have been given by a permanent system of registration, but far superior to those hitherto available.

Among the more immediate advantages to be derived from data of this kind, through the medium of life tables, they will form a basis for the equitable distribution of life-interests in estates, pensions, and legacies; they would assign the true valuation of life annuities, assurances, and reversions of heritable property, and tend to protect the public from many ill adjusted financial schemes, founded in ignorance of the true probabilities of life. They would correct a multitude of prejudices and misconceptions respecting the healthiness of the different localities, and besides this, form a common standard of reference in all those moral, sanitary, and mercantile statistics which have brought to light most valuable truths and generalizations, and which give promise of still greater benefits in the advancement of civilization.

Without intending to discuss several attempts heretofore made for the construction of life tables in this country, let it be observed, as is universally admitted, that the ratio of the annual deaths to the contemporary number living at each age, constitutes the implicit element of computation.

An enumeration of the living, or of the deaths only, is insufficient for the purpose, unless the population is stationary, or due allowance is made for the changes inwrought by births and migration during the whole century previous.

The assumption of a stationary population, however, can scarcely be entertained of even the oldest settled parts of the Union. The value and prospects of life, and the influence of climate on longevity, are lost or obscured, both by recent and remote changes. It is within the memory of persons now living, when most of our large cities were in their infancy; when forests were standing on grounds since occupied by the busiest marts of trade, and the corn was waving in the wind where now are the most populous streets.

Periods of unusual emigration or exodus have been followed by a temporary decrease, only to recommence with augmented numbers. But the chief inequality with reference to the present inquiry arises from the fact, that the great mass of emigrants are almost exclusively in the prime of life. Traced upon the texture of society, as these changes must be, in relative excesses and deficiencies at the several ages, the joint statistics of the living and of the annual deaths afford the only feasible mode of arriving at the law of mortality, independent of those former changes.

A life table for the State of Maryland has been prepared from a joint comparison of the abstracts of the returns of 1850. It comprises a very full interpretation of the laws of vitality indicated by the data for the year of enumeration, which may be regarded as one of average mortality. In the present case, the investigation relates exclusively to the white population of Maryland, irrespective of city or country residents or of the sexes, or of foreign or indigenous extraction.

The results and derived tables are specified at length in the Report on Maryland. From the preliminary table of population there given, it would appear that the line of equal division of the living fall upon the age of twenty; one-half of the white population being under, and the other half above, twenty years of age; or distributing with reference to three equal parts, one-third of the population is under thirteen and a half years of age; one-third is included between this and the age of twenty-nine, and the remaining third is above twenty-nine years of age. With respect to the deaths, the points of equal division fall upon ages several years younger than in the corresponding distributions of the living.

For exhibiting the law of mortality for individual lives, the data of the census were equated, and reduced to the simple case of 10,268 infants born on the same day, and commencing life simultaneously.

Assuming that like circumstances will continue to prevail during the years to come in this state, which may be regarded as certain, the population will continually be affected by the same rate of mortality. And hence we may safely estimate and predict, that, of the specified number of infants at the outset of life, 1,243 will perish prematurely in the first year of existence, and 9,025, or numbers in that proportion, will survive to enter upon their second year. A very considerable, but decreasing mortality likewise prevails in the second and third years, leaving only 8,183, or about four-fifths of the original number, to commence upon their fourth year; but after this age, the juvenile system acquires more firmness, and a greater degree of the vigor and experience to guard against disease. At the age of twenty-one, 7,134 survive to enter upon a more active and responsible career of life; of whom 6,302 attain to "thirty-five"—the meridian of manhood. Proceeding onward for twenty years, to the age of "fifty-five," only 4,727, or less than one-half the original number, then survive. From this age the numbers are decimated more frequently, and the vacated places of the fallen are occupied by advancing generations; till, having passed the mental and physical changes in the round and mystery of life, so graphically portrayed in the "Seven Ages" of the dramatist, a few become centenarians, and linger on the verge of life, till virtually, at the age of one hundred and six years, all have closed their earthly existence.

The table for Maryland also comprises the "Expectations of Life," or the average number of years which the great mass of the white population live after a given present age. This arrangement of the data is justly described as that which is of the most interest to society; for it points out the average number of years in which one member of the community with another participates in the pleasures and cares of life.

An individual, for instance, on attaining his thirtieth birth-day, has an expectancy of nearly thirty-five years. At fifty years of age, the lease of time's estate (so to express the idea) is limited to a little more than nineteen years longer. The maximum expectation—52.86 years—is at the age of four in this table; in the well-known Carlisle table, it is represented to occur at the age of five; and at six in the Swedish table. The joint expectation for two lives, as in the marriage relation, or the average period during which both shall be living, may now be determined in like manner, and also for three or more lives of given ages.

It has been remarked, that tables, properly constructed from sufficient data, never differ widely from each other. For this reason, and on account of their high value, insertion is likewise given in that report to three standard European tables; from no one of which does the Maryland table differ in the comparison so much as they differ among themselves.

Indeed, the duration of life by the Maryland table is found to be almost an exact medium between the British female annuitants and the Carlisle values; which affords strong proof of accuracy. From these tabular forms for Maryland, the probabilities of life can readily be ascertained in a given case, with the value of annuities, assurances, and other reversions dependent upon lives; and, when extended to other localities, the results will eventually promote a most important national purpose, one which has long been desired—that of attaining a correct estimate of the standard of human life among different classes of population in this country.

Table of Deaths during the year ending 1st *June*, 1850.

	No. of Deaths.	Ratio to the number living.
Maine	7,545	77.29
New-Hampshire	4,268	74.49
Vermont	3,132	100.13
Massachusetts	19,414	51.23
Rhode Island	2,241	65.83
Connecticut	5,781	64.13
New-York	44,339	69.85
New-Jersey	6,467	75.70
Pennsylvania	28,318	81.63
Delaware	1,209	75.71
Maryland	9,594	60.77
Virginia	19,053	74.61
North Carolina	10,207	85.12
South Carolina	7,997	83.59
Georgia	9,920	91.93
Alabama	9,084	84.94
Mississippi	8,711	69.63
Louisiana	11,948	42.85
Texas	3,046	69.79
Florida	933	93.67
Kentucky	15,206	64.60
Tennessee	11,759	85.34
Missouri	12,211	55,81
Arkansas	2,987	70.18
Ohio	28,949	68.41
Indiana	12,728	77.65
Illinois	11,619	73,28
Michigan	4,520	88.19
Iowa	2,044	94.03
Wisconsin	2,884	105.82
California	—	—
Minnesota	30	202.56
Oregon	47	282.82
New-Mexico	1,157	53.15
Utah	239	47.61
District of Columbia	846	61,09

STATES.	Acres of land improved.	Value of farming implements and machinery.	Value of live stock.	Bushels of Wheat.	Bushels of Indian Corn.	Tobacco, pounds of	Ginn'd cotton, bales of 400 lbs. each.	Wool, pounds of.	Wine, gallons of.	Butter, pounds of.	Cheese, pounds of.	Hay, tons of.	Maple Sugar, lbs. of
Maine	2,019,593	$2,363,517	$9,831,488	367,980	1,741,715	—	—	1,366,866	306	8,488,234	2,201,105	794,780	87,541
New-Hampshire	2,251,388	2,314,125	8,871,901	185,658	1,573,670	50	—	1,108,476	35	6,977,056	3.196,563	598,854	1,292,429
Vermont	2,322,923	2,774,959	11,292,748	493,666	1,625,776	—	—	3,492,087	140	12,128,095	6,755,006	763,579	5,159,641
Massachusetts	2,127,924	3,173,809	9,619,964	29,784	2,326,167	119,306	—	576,736	4,122	7,825,337	7 124,461	645,749	768,596
Rhode Island	337,672	473,385	1,466,636	39	516,133	—	—	111,937	842	1,066,625	296,748	73,353	—
Connecticut	1,734,277	2,043,026	7,353,996	40,167	1,996,462	1,383,932	—	512,529	3,346	6,620,579	4,512,019	499,706	37,781
New-York	12,285,077	22,217,563	74,672,356	13,073,357	17,844,808	70,222	—	10,021,507	6,483	82,043,823	49,785,905	3,714,734	10,310,764
New-Jersey	1,770,337	4,267,124	10,678,264	1,508,216	8,605,396	—	—	375,932	517	9,070,710	500,819	429,119	5,886
Pennsylvania	8,619,631	14,931,993	42,146,711	15,482,191	19,707,702	857,619	—	4,784,367	23,839	40,554,741	2,395 279	1,826,265	2,218,644
Delaware	524,364	471,385	1,718,386	466,784	2,868,896	—	—	52,887	85	1,034,867	3,187	30,159	—
Maryland	2,797,905	2,463,443	7,997,634	4,494,680	11,104 631	21,199,281	—	477,438	2,099	4,206,160	3,925	145,070	47,740
District of Columbia	17,083	40,220	71,573	17,370	65,280	15,000	—	—	863	14,869	—	1,974	—
Virginia	10,150,106	7,021,658	33,607,962	14,516,950	35,538,582	56,516,492	2,767	2,850,909	4,280	11,126,795	434,850	370,177	1,223,905
North Carolina	5,443,137	4,056,006	17,837,108	2,147,899	28,286,999	12,058,147	98,028	915,289	10,801	4,144,258	95,043	145,180	27,448
South Carolina	4,074,855	4,143,709	15,060,015	1,066,278	16,272,308	73,235	300,901	487,243	3,680	2,979,975	4,810	25,427	200
Georgia	6,323,426	5,901,050	25,727,408	1,085,784	30,428,540	420,123	494,023	988,802	664	4,640,074	46,391	23,427	50
Florida	349,423	675,885	2,945,668	1,225	1,993,462	982,584	45,078	23,235	10	375,853	18,324	2,620	—
Alabama	4,387,088	5,066,814	31,558 686	292,429	28,485,966	163,605	560,360	637,829	14	3,961,592	30,423	31,801	473
Mississippi	3,489,640	5,759,738	19,303,593	215,181	21,836,154	48,349	4,94,774	556,057	301	4,388,112	20,314	12,517	110
Louisiana	1,567,998	11,326,310	10,983,508	84	10,915,051	23,922	163,034	105,393	—	685,136	1,148	20,672	260
Texas	635,913	2,095,308	10,263,086	42,448	5,796,735	69,770	55,945	122,118	94	2,319,574	92,018	8,327	—
Arkansas	780,333	1,594,941	6,728,254	193,902	8,857,296	224,164	64,987	181,427	10	1,854,104	28,440	3,924	8,825
Tennessee	5,087,057	5,351,178	29,134,193	1,638,470	52,137,863	20,144,380	192,635	1,340,833	204	8,130,636	179,577	72,942	159,647
Kentucky	6,068,633	5,388,092	29,898,386	2,184,763	58,922,788	55,765,259	1,669	2,246,168	4,202	10,115,267	228,744	115,296	388,525
Ohio	9,730,650	12,716,153	43,276,187	14,967,056	59,788,750	10,480,967	—	10,089,607	44,834	34,180,458	21,350,478	1,360,636	4,521,643
Michigan	1,923,582	2,764,171	8,005,429	4,918,706	5,620,215	2,225	—	2,047,364	1,443	7,043,794	1,012,551	394,717	2,423,897
Indiana	5,019,822	6,748,722	22,398,965	6,625,474	52,887,561	1,035,146	— 5	2,502,763	13,004	12,748,186	666,986	402,791	2,921,638
Illinois	5,114,041	6,349,826	24,817,954	9,433,965	57,179,283	844,129	— 8	2,129,139	2,343	12,605,554	1,283,758	586,011	246,078
Missouri	2,911,422	3,977,449	19,764,672	2,943,840	35,709,042	17,038,364	—	1,635,182	10,193	7,762,124	201,597	116,284	171,943
Iowa	814,173	1,202,978	3,602,769	1,442,074	8,475,027	2,012	—	363,398	420	1,933,128	198,444	84,598	70,680
Wisconsin	1,011,308	1,701,047	4,594,717	4,292,208	1,983,378	768	—	243,065	68	888,816	440,961	295,227	661,969
California	34,312	88,593	3,456,725	98,282	90,082	1,000	—	4,800	—	705	150	2,038	—
Minnesota	5,035	15,981	103,859	3,422	16,665	—	—	260	—	1,100	—	2,069	1,950
Oregon	135,357	183,403	1,875,989	228,882	2,928	325	—	29,596	—	211,734	36,030	373	—
Utah	15,219	78,495	533,951	103,441	9,144	—	—	8,897	—	74,064	32,646	4,288	—
New-Mexico	161,296	78,217	1,504,497	196,575	355 795	1,118	—	32,641	2,053	101	5,887	—	—
Total	112,042,000	151,820,273	552,705,238	104,799,230	591,586,053	199,532.494	2,474,214	52,422,797	141,295	312,202,286	103,184,585	13,605,384	32,759,363

OTHER AGRICULTURAL PRODUCTS.

Cane Sugar, 318,644 hhds. of 1000 lbs. each, of which Louisiana produced 262,486; Florida, 47,411; Texas, 7,017; Georgia, 1,273.

Hemp—Dew-rotted, tons 62,182, of which Missouri produced 17,061 and Kentucky 37,168. The whole amount of water-rotted hemp 13,059 tons, 4,000 being in Missouri, 2,600 in Kentucky, the balance chiefly in western states.

Flax Seed, total 567,749 bushels—185,000 being in Ohio, 80,000 in Kentucky, 50,000 each in Virginia and New-York, the rest generally in the other states.

Rice, returns not completed. **Total Homemade Manufactures** in the states, $27.525,545.

AGRICULTURE.

The great amount of labor requisite to the extraction of the returns of agriculture will admit, at this time, of presenting but limited accounts, though, to some extent, of the most important separate interests.

The returns of the wheat crop, for many of the Western states, will not at all indicate the average crop of those states. This is especially the case with Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, from which, especially the former, the assistant marshals return a "short crop," to the extent of fifty per cent, throughout the whole state. The shortness of the whole crop in Ohio, in 1849, is verified by returns made during the subsequent season, by authority of the Legislature. The causes which affected the wheat crop in those states were not without their influence in reducing that of Western Virginia and Western Pennsylvania to some considerable extent.

MANUFACTURES.

The period which has elapsed since the receipt of the returns, has been so short, as to enable the office to make but a general report of the facts relating to a few of the most important manufactures. If, in some instances, the amount of "capital invested" in any branch of manufacture should seem too small, it must be borne in mind, that where the product is of several kinds, the capital invested, not being divisible, is connected with the product of greatest consequence. This, to some extent, reduces the capital invested in the manufacture of bar iron, in such establishments where some other article of wrought iron predominates—sheet iron, for example. The aggregate, however, of the capital invested, in the various branches of wrought iron, will, it is confidently believed, be found correct.

The entire capital invested in the various manufactures in the United States, on the 1st of June, 1850—not to include any establishment producing less than the annual value of $500—amounted, in round numbers, to $530,000,000

Value of raw material	550,000,000
Amount paid for labor	240,000,000
Value of manufactured articles	1,020,300,000
Number of persons employed	1,050,000

More minute particulars respecting these separate interests will be found incorporated in the tables.

THE PRESS.

The statistics of the newspaper press form an interesting feature in the returns of the seventh census.

It appears that the whole number of newspapers and periodicals in the United States, on the first day of June, 1850, amounted to 2,800. Of these, 2,494 were fully returned, 234 had all the facts excepting circulation given, and 72 are estimated for California, the Territories, and for those that may have been omitted by the assistant marshals.

From calculations made on the statistics returned, and estimated circulations where they have been omitted, it appears that the aggregate circulation of these 2,800 papers and periodicals is about 5,000,000, and that the entire number of copies printed annually in the United States, amounts to 422,600,000.

The following table will show the number of daily, weekly, monthly, and other issues, with the aggregate circulation of each class:

	No.	Circulation.	No. copies printed annually.
Dailies	350	750,000	235,000,000
Tri-weeklies	150	75,000	11,700,000
Semi-weeklies	125	80,000	8,320,000
Weeklies	2,000	2,875,000	149,500,000
Semi-monthlies	50	300,000	7,200,000
Monthlies	100	900,000	10,800,000
Quarterlies	25	29,000	80,000
	2,800	5,000,000	422,600,000

Four hundred and twenty-four papers are issued in the New-England states, 876 in the Middle states, 716 in the Southern states, and 784 in the Western states.

The average circulation of papers in the United States, is 1,785. There is one publication for every 7,161 free inhabitants in the United States and Territories.

In accordance with the views expressed in the commission with which the department honored me in May last, I visited, during the three summer months, the capitals of many of the important governments of Europe, for the purpose of examining into the methods adopted for the procuring and classification of such facts as are enumerated by those governments in their statistical investigations, in order that our own census might, when published, prove of the greatest value to ourselves, and not seem inferior to those of countries which have the credit of having paid more attention to statistical science, although they may not have made greater advances in what we esteem rational forms of government.

It seems more desirable to possess every ray of light on this subject, when considering that the present census is one of unexampled importance to ourselves and our posterity, as exhibiting our condition to the middle of a century, and illustrative of the progress of a people, flourishing beyond all precedent, under a new form of government; one whose history and example must, as it becomes known, exert an important influence throughout the civilized world. This census, while it exhibits our progress for sixty years, with a precision and certainty which no other country has been able to enjoy, and gives a reality to the past, unattainable with respect to any other people, discloses the present statistical history, and that for the first time, of a country embracing more than a million square miles of territory, the future destiny of which is inseparably connected with that of the original thirteen states. Not only, however, in connection with these statistical investigations, did it seem desirable to avail ourselves of any improvements introduced into the last censuses of Europe, to enable us to prepare our own great national work on the best system; but for many of the practical purposes to which statistics are applied and deemed valuable, it seems desirable to effect some arrangement by which the publication of the results of the great elementary facts among nations should be made as nearly simultaneous as possible, and classified on the same general principles, as far as the facts taken would justify; in order that, while we use every exertion to analyze society at home, we may, from their statistics, enjoy the advantage of being able to arrive at a similar analysis with respect to other nations, and that, while contemplating our own progress from time to time, we may be able to institute comparisons with the advancement of other people. Heretofore, at least in every step of investigation, the statist in wishing to prosecute inquiries respecting different nations, touching the great elements of society, has met with the insurmountable difficulty arising from the different elements elucidated, and the diverse methods of combination adopted, which lessen the value of their labors, reciprocally, and in the absence of more reliable data, lead to the frequent use of one set of elements to ascertain the condition of some different set, producing results equally unsatisfactory to the man of science, as they are often dangerous, if made the basis of the political economy and legislation of a government.

In addition to the effort to effect a general sympathy or concert of action among nations, with reference to their periodical statistics, it has been my aim, in which I have succeeded, often in the absence of published records, to procure a knowledge of the exact condition of the people of all classes in each country visited, and learn their true state with reference to numbers, and the products of their agriculture and manufactures, their social and moral condition, the state of education, the price of labor, and the practical management of the farming interests; in no case, however, relying upon information not either obtained from personal observation, or derived officially, and in a manner which can leave no doubt of its correctness. My opportunities abroad will not only enable me to effect valuable improvements in compiling our census, but it will be my aim to make the statistical facts useful to the country by forming them into a report to be supplemental hereto, the completion of which has been retarded by my other official duties.

Another object had in view, was the procuring information with reference to the manner in which the various offices in Europe, especially those connected with agriculture and statistics, are organized, and the manner in which the information obtained is made available to the government and people. To the attainment of these purposes, the few weeks to which my time limited me, and the diversity of languages among those with whom my investigations were pursued, interposed difficulties only surmounted by a zealous determination to effect the duty undertaken—one in which failure must have ensued, were it not for the official character sustained in connection with the office here, and that with which the department honored me, as its representative abroad: the one enabling me to impart as much valuable information to others as was solicited in return; the other giving facilities of intercourse, and a claim to consideration, which was never slighted by any officer of a foreign government.

In England, in addition to the free intercourse enjoyed with the officers of government connected with statistical matters, several opportunities were offered for bringing the object of my mission before public audiences; and invitations were tendered me to address the members of the London Statistical Society at its annual meeting in that city, the Society of Actuaries at Richmond, and the British Association at Ipswich, during its annual meeting, which was attended by Prince Albert, one of its members, and many of the most distinguished literary and scientific gentlemen of Great Britain and the Continent. The Statistical Council of Belgium, M. Quetelet, President, gave me a place in their Board at one of its regular meetings. On each opportunity it gave me pleasure to present a full account of the character and extent of our investigations, under the act of Congress, for taking the seventh census, to make a fair and impartial exhibit of our progress in wealth and numbers during the past ten years, and at the same time urge the propriety of mutual efforts towards the attainment of more uniform and useful statistical publications by different governments. The propriety of this measure was felt by individuals who had made statistics a study, and the necessity for some action was universally conceded; and it affords me infinite gratification to state, that an arrangement has been made for a general statistical Congress, to be held at Brussels, (Belgium,) during the ensuing fall—a measure which has received the approbation of several of the most distinguished statists of Europe, and from which the most beneficial results are anticipated. Mr. Porter, of the Board of Trade, has been appointed a delegate to this Statistical Congress from England. He is a gentleman distinguished no less by his laborious researches and valuable contributions to the science of political economy and statistical knowledge of the British empire, than for the elevated position he holds as a public officer and man of letters. J. C. KENNEDY.

		1790.	1800.	Ratio of Increase	1810.	Ratio of Increase	1820.	Ratio of Increase
N. England.	Maine	96,540	151,719	57.1	228,705	50.7	298,335	30.4
	New-Hampshire	141,899	183,762	29.5	214,360	16.6	244,161	13.9
	Vermont	85,416	154,465	80.8	217,713	41.	235,764	8.2
	Massachusetts	378,717	423,245	11.7	472,040	11.5	523,287	10.9
	Rhode Island	69,110	69,122	–	77,031	11.4	83,059	7.8
	Connecticut	238,141	251,002	5.4	262,042	4.3	275,202	5.
		1,009,823	1,233,315	22.1	1,471,891	19.3	1,659,808	12.8
Middle.	New-York	340,120	586,756	72.5	959,049	63.4	1,372,812	43.1
	New-Jersey	184,139	211,949	15.1	245,555	15.9	277,575	13.
	Pennsylvania	434,373	602,365	38.6	810,091	34.4	1,049,458	29.5
		958,632	1,401,070	46.15	2,014,695	43.79	2,699,845	34.
Atlantic.	Delaware	59,096	64,273	8.7	72,674	13.	72,749	–
	District of Columbia	–	14,093	–	24,023	36.8	33,039	37.5
	Maryland	319,728	341,548	6.8	380,546	11.4	407,350	7.
	Virginia	748,308	880,200	17.6	974,622	10.7	1,065,379	9.3
	North Carolina	393,751	478,103	21.3	555,500	16.2	638,829	15.
	South Carolina	249,073	345,591	38.7	415,115	20.1	502,741	18.1
	Georgia	82,548	162,101	96.4	252,433	55.1	340,987	35.1
	Florida	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
		1,852,504	2,285,909	23.39	2,674,913	17.01	3,061,074	14.43
Northwestern.	Ohio	–	45,365	–	230,760	406.7	581,434	152.
	Indiana	–	4,875	–	24,520	403.	147,178	500.2
	Illinois	–	–	–	12,282	–	55,211	349.5
	Iowa	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Wisconsin	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Michigan	–	–	–	4,762	–	8,896	86.8
	Minnesota, (Territory)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
		–	50,240	–	272,324	442.04	792,719	191.09
Southern & Western.	Kentucky	73,077	220,955	200.	406,511	83.1	564,317	38.8
	Missouri	–	–	–	20,845	–	66,586	219.5
	Alabama	–	–	–	–	–	127,901	–
	Louisiana	–	–	–	76,556	–	153,407	100.4
	Tennessee	35,791	105,602	200.	261,727	147.8	422,813	61.5
	Mississippi	–	8,850	–	40,352	356.	75,448	87.
	Arkansas	–	–	–	–	–	14,273	–
	Texas	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	New Mexico, (Ter'y)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
		108,868	335,407	208.08	805,991	140.3	1,424,745	76.76
	*California	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
Territories.	Oregon	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	†Utah	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Seamen in U. S. service	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Total	3,929,827	5,305,941	35.01	7,239,814	36.45	9,638,191	33.12

Statement of Population by Classes decennially, from 1790 to 1850, inclusive.

Whites	3,172,464	4,304,489	35.7	5,862,004	36.2	7,866,569	34.19
Free colored	59,466	108,395	82.2	186,446	72.2	233,524	25.25
Slaves	697,897	893,057	27.9	1,191,364	33.4	1,538,098	29.1
Seamen in U. S. service	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	3,929,827	5,305,941	–	7,239,814	–	9,638,191	–
Total Free	3,231,930	4,412,884	36.4	6,048,450	37.	8,100,093	33.92
Total colored population, free & slaves	757,363	1,001,452	32.2	1,377,810	37.6	1,771,622	28.58

* The population of California is set down at 165,000 as an approximation to the real population, which may be essentially varied by complete returns. Should the returns vary from our estimate so far as to reduce the population of California 30,000, South Carolina will be entitled to a member additional, as being next above on the list of fractions. The official returns of California will slightly affect the calculation respecting the aggregate increase of the free population for the year 1850. Ratio of representation, 93,716.

† The returns of Utah have been received since the preparation of this report.

		1830.	Ratio of Incrse.	1840.	Ratio of Incrse.	1850.	Ratio of Incrse.	Represent. of each State. No.	Represent. of each State. Fractions.	Present No. Reps.
New England.	Maine	399,455	33.9	501,793	26.2	583,188	16.22	6	20,892	7
	New-Hampshire	269,328	10.3	284,574	5.6	317,964	11.63	3	36,816	4
	Vermont	280,652	19.	291,948	4.	314,120	7.59	3	32,972	4
	Massachusetts	610,408	16.6	737,699	20.8	994,499	34.81	11	*57,339	10
	Rhode Island	97,199	17.	108,830	11.9	147,544	35.57	2	*53,828	2
	Connecticut	297,675	8.1	309,978	4.1	370,791	19.61	4	*89,643	4
		1,954,717	17,7	2,234,822	14.3	2,728,106	22.07			
Middle	New-York	1,918,608	39.7	2,428,921	26.6	3,097,394	27.52	33	4,766	34
	New-Jersey	320,823	15.5	373,306	16.3	489,555	31.14	5	20,886	5
	Pennsylvania	1,348,233	28.5	1,724,033	27.9	2,311,786	34.09	25	*62,602	24
		3,587,664	32.88	4,526,260	26.16	5,898,735	30.32			
Atlantic.	Delaware	76,748	5.5	78,085	1.7	91,535	17.22	1		1
	District of Columbia	39,834	29.2	43,712	23.3	51,687	18.24			
	Maryland	447,040	9.7	470,019	5.1	583,035	24,04	6	*78,307	6
	Virginia	1,211,405	13.7	1,239,797	2.3	1,421,661	14,66	13	14,341	15
	North Carolina	737,987	15.5	753.419	2.1	868,903	15.32	8	3,810	9
	South Carolina	581,185	15.6	594,398	2.3	668,507	12.46	5	45.933	7
	Georgia	516,823	51.2	691,392	33.8	905,999	31.03	8	3,598	8
	Florida	34,730	–	54,477	56.8	87,401	60.43	1		1
		3,645,752	19.1	3,925,299	7.66	4,678,728	19,19			
Northwestern.	Ohio	937,903	61.3	1,519,467	62.	1,980,408	30,33	21	12,372	21
	Indiana	343,031	133.	685,866	99.9	988,416	44,11	11	*51,256	10
	Illinois	157,445	185.2	476,183	202.4	851,470	78,81	9	8,026	7
	Iowa	–	–	43,112	–	192,214	345.84	2	4,782	2
	Wisconsin	–	–	30,945	–	305,191	890.48	3	24,043	3
	Michigan	31,639	255.6	212,267	570.9	397,654	87.33	4	22,790	3
	Minnesota, (Territory)	–	–	–	–	6,077				
		1,470,018	85.43	2,967,840	101.89	4,721,430	59.08			
Southern & Western	Kentucky	687,917	21.9	779,828	13.3	982,405	25.98	10	*54,568	10
	Missouri	140,455	110.9	383,702	173.2	682,043	77.75	7	*84,778	5
	Alabama	309,527	142.	590,756	90.8	771,671	30.62	7	*72,218	7
	Louisiana	215,739	40.6	352,411	63.3	511,974	45.27	4	41,501	4
	Tennessee	681,904	61.3	829,210	21.6	1,002,625	20.91	10	*63,396	11
	Mississippi	136,621	81.	375,651	175.	606,555	61.46	5	14,015	4
	Arkansas	30,388	112.9	97,574	221.1	209,639	114.85	2	3,414	1
	Texas	–	–	–	–	212,592	–	2	1,895	2
	New-Mexico, (Ter'y)	–	–	–	–	61,547				
		2,202,551	54.59	3,409,132	54.78	5,041,051	47.86			
	*California	–	–	–	–	165,000	–	2		2
	Oregon } Territories.	–	–	–	–	13,293			*Have the addition on account of the fractions.	
	†Utah } Territories.	–	–	–	–	11,380				
	Seamen in U. S. service	5,318	–	6,100						
	Total	2,866,020	33.48	17,069,453	32.67	23,257,723	36.25	233		233

Statement of Population by Classes decennially, from 1790 to 1850, inclusive.

Whites	10,537,378	33.95	14,189.895	34.7	19,630,738	38.28
Free colored	319,599	36,85	386,245	20.9	428,661	10·9
Slaves	2,009,043	30,61	2,487,213	23.8	3,198,324	28.58
Seamen in U. S. service	–	–	6,100‡			
	12,866,020	–	17,069,453	–	23,257,723	36.25
Total free	10,856,977	34,03	14,576,140	34.1	20,059,399	37.61
Total colored population, free & slaves	2,328,642	31,44	2,873,458	23.4	3,626,985	26.22

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* For population of California, see page 688.

† The returns of Utah have been received since the preparation of this report.

‡ Added to white population.

2.—CULTURE OF COTTON IN MACEDONIA.

The following extract from the report of an inquest lately instituted by the French Minister of Commerce, touching our great staple, cotton, will not be void of interest to most of our readers:

The cultivation of the Brazil cottons has not been tried in Macedonia; but for several years trial has been made in the districts of *Seres* and *Drama*, of the fine qualities of the United States, which have been perfectly successful. It has been ascertained, moreover, that the United States cottons are superior in value, by over twenty per cent., to any which have hitherto been cultivated in the province. Nevertheless, the successful trial of them has not been followed up, because they have to be picked very rapidly, and in Macedonia the hands are too few, and perhaps the cultivators too lazy, to comply with this condition. In the next place, the ginning presents more difficulties than for the kinds of cotton now cultivated; for it requires the use of machines, the cost of which exceed the means of the cultivators and proprietors of the country, who, indebted almost without exception, can only raise money by paying usurious interest. The kind of cotton now cultivated is separated from the seed by means of large cylinders, the expense of which is not more than $1 to $1 20. The principal cotton districts in Macedonia are those of *Seres*, *Drama* and *Zigna*. Since the commencement of the present century, the cultivation of cotton has been, to a considerable extent, replaced by that of grain and Indian corn.

The cultivation of cotton in Thessalia is of little importance, producing scarcely enough for local consumption.

In *Anatolia* herbaceous cotton has been cultivated for a long period in the districts of Aydin and Brousse. It is planted in March and picked in September. It is cultivated so easily, and the quality is so good, that before the introduction of the *Jumel*, or cotton tree, into Egypt, that country used to import all its cotton seed from Anatolia. Even at the present day she has recourse to this province at times. But the cotton which grows from this seed does not in its turn produce seed suitable for planting, and she found it necessary every year to get supplies from Asia Minor. This inconvenience, joined to the fact that the Anatic plant lasts but one year, while the cotton tree produces for seven years, has contributed more and more to make Egypt abandon the Anatolian cotton, though it is reputed to be of a superior quality.

The demand having fallen off for Anatolian cotton, the production has been diminished also. In fact, the annual exportation, which, before the Americans had carried the cultivation of cotton to such an extent, had risen, for Smyrna, to from 60,000 to 70,000 bales per year, is reduced now to from 12,000 to 15,000. The weight of the bales varies from 450 to 660 lbs.—this difference growing out of the necessity of regulating the weight to the strength of the camels used in transporting the cotton. Each animal carries two bales.

The cotton of Anatolia is divided into five qualities: the first comprising the cottons of *Sobondja* and *Aydin*; the second those of *Kirk-Agadje*; the third those of *Canaba*; the fourth those of *Kinck* and of *Pergame*; the fifth those of *Magnesia*, which are the least esteemed. The average crop each year is about 30,000 bales, or say 16,500,000 pounds. It often happens that more cotton is produced in the year than is sufficient both for the demands for exportation and for home consumption. In such cases the growth of corn is substituted the following year for that of cotton, and the trade in the latter is confined, of course, to what remains on hand. But these facts have no particular influence on the cotton market; we can only conclude from them that in case of an extraordinary demand, Anatolia could furnish much larger crops. The 30,000 bales which now constitute her annual production, are disposed of thus: 8,000 bales, say 4,500,000 pounds, are retained for home consumption; from 12,000 to 15,000 bales are exported; and about 10,000 bales are used in the manufactories of Aydin, Canaba, and Menemen. One of the principal importers of cotton from Asia Minor is Marseilles. In 1850, she imported, in forty-five vessels, 7,618 bales, containing about 4,190,000 pounds. In 1851, however the quantity was much smaller, as up to November 26, she had only received 3,995 bales, containing about 2,200,000 pounds. The first quality cotton from Anatolia was worth in November, 1851, about five cents per pound; the lowest quality was worth about 4½ cents. This last year the crop has been very small, on account of the dryness of the season.

We learn from the same source, that the Sultan is this year trying, on a large scale, in the country around Smyrna, the culture of cotton from seed procured expressly for this purpose from the southern United States. We have not yet learned the result of the experiment.

3.—COTTON CULTURE IN CAUCASIA.

I extract from the Annals of Foreign Commerce, published by the Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, at St. Petersburgh, the following notice of the culture of cotton in Caucasia. This is ever a subject of interest to your Southern readers:

Cotton is one of the most important productions which Russia is likely to receive from Transcaucasia. Up to 1830, she had imported from foreign countries only about 250,000 *pouds*, (about 9,000,000 pounds,) but in 1850, the importation had increased to over 1,000,000 *pouds*, (or 36,000,000 pounds.) These figures show the increasing magnitude of the cotton interest in Russia, and it is interesting to know that so important a staple can be cultivated to a considerable extent in Transcaucasia.

This, however, is no new discovery, for cotton has been grown in the province of Armenia for a long period; though the Armenian cotton has generally been of a very short staple and poor quality. The production at present is about 130,000 *pouds*, (4,685,000 pounds,) and this is mostly used in the country for spinning, and in the manufacture of wadding.

In 1835, Baron Rosen, commander-in-chief of the country, introduced some cotton-seed from Egypt. The first trials of it, however, were not continued; but in 1845, Prince Worontzoff, Lieutenant of Caucasus, ordered more seed, not only from Egypt, but from Malta and Bourbon.

Shortly after this, (in 1847,) new plantations were established in four villages near the Kiow, and the cotton produced was in no way inferior to that of Egypt. The average crop was sixteen to twenty *pouds*, (say 576 to 720 pounds,) per *dessiatine*, (a *dessiatine* being about 2¾ acres,) and it was worth at Moscow about 72 rubles silver ($6 76) per *poud*.

Nevertheless, these four villages raise only about 500 *pouds* (18,000 pounds) for local consumption. It has been calculated that a *poud* (36 pounds) could be raised and delivered in Moscow for from 3 rubles 4 cop. to 4 rubles, (from $3 to $3 86,) and could be sold there for from 6 to 7 rubles.

To extend this business, and to raise from the first year 2,000 *pouds* (72,000 pounds) of cotton, it will be necessary to have a hundred *dessiatines* of land (about 275 acres) near the Kiow, or the Souscha, and a capital of 15,000 rubles.

In Transcaucasia there are more than 400,000 *dessiatines* (1,100,000 acres) of land suited to the culture of cotton, and it should be remarked that a sixth part of this quantity would be sufficient to supply the whole cotton demand of Russia.

4.—NORTHERN SHIPS AND SOUTHERN RAIL-ROADS.*

Has it ever occurred to the northern ship-owners that there is probably no interest more directly connected with the advancement of New-Orleans than their own? That such is the fact no elaborate argument is needed to prove; for any intelligent mind will be convinced of it by a moment's reflection upon the course of trade. New-Orleans, as she now stands, is mainly the accretion, so to speak, of a large trade with the interior, and her prosperity and progress can be secured only by retaining that portion of her internal commerce which she yet possesses, and by opening new avenues and new resources to swell the aggregate of her "Receipts from the Interior." And in this prosperity and progress, we assert, the northern ship-owners are directly interested; for the more we receive, the more their ships will carry away; and every pound of produce of whatever nature, that is drawn from the valleys of the Ohio and the Mississippi to the Eastern cities by means of the northern canals and rail-roads, is so much freight lost to them. Now, gentlemen ship-owners of the North, we beg leave respectfully to inform you that, after years of culpable supineness, which all now acknowledge, our city and state, and our neighboring states, are awakening to the necessity of bringing Art to the aid of Nature; and while the latter still yields her rivers (such as they are) to the navigation of the flatboat and the steamboat, the former is making efforts to open new resources by means of rail-roads, the want of which has been signally demonstrated during the past season. In this new enterprise money is wanted; and we advise you, as you value your own interest, to send on your capital to its aid. By so doing, we firmly believe that you will not only make a safe investment, in the common acceptation of the term, but will assist your main interest, which is the furnishing of profitable employment for your ships. And it should be remembered by ship-owners, that the advantage of increased receipts at our port is not confined to outward freights alone. A safe and profitable investment, which, as we conceive, our rail-road stocks would furnish, and the increased amount of outward freight which would result from the construction of rail-roads, would seem to be sufficient incentives to a liberal outlay of their capital. But besides these, there are the return freights, the extent of which, of course, depends mainly upon the amount of produce exported, and which will be greater or less as the trade of our city is more or less extended and prosperous. These views, for aught we know, are familiar to all, and we claim no merit of originality; but as we do not remember to have heard them in conversation, or to have seen them in print, we have presumed to put them forth in the crude form in which they here appear. Please take them for what they are worth.

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* From New-Orleans Prices Current.

5.—NEGRO LIFE IN WASHINGTON.

A correspondent of the New-York Express, writing from Washington, says:

"It is not of enjoyments in high life that I took up my pen to write you this morning, but to describe an assembly more properly pertaining to 'Life Below Stairs,' that has just taken place in the 'West End.' A week ago one of my acquaintances brought for my inspection an invitation she had received, and which she wished to accept. In an envelop, covered with embossed cupids and roses, directed to Miss ——, was a printed card as follows:

"'The *Psyc Club* respectfully invites the pleasure of Miss —— company on Wednesday evening next, 3rd of March, at 8 o'clock.' [Managers' names, &c.]

"The very respectable gentlemen of color, whose names were down as managers, told what the affair would be, and, in reality, no party given in Washington this season was more costly or more enjoyed. It was held in a large brick house on the avenue, which was lent to them by the owner, a gentleman of high standing here, the whole mansion being open for the occasion. The two parlors below were filled with ladies of color, of various ages, matrons and maidens, dressed in satins, thules, bareges, flowers, muslins, with bouquets, fans and embroidered handkerchiefs. They were received by the managers, who wore large white satin rosettes, and were indefatigable in their attentions to all. A third room on the lower floor was open the entire evening, in which were hot chocolate, cakes, oysters, lemonade and punch. The third story was given up for dressing-rooms, one for ladies, one for gentlemen. The second floor was occupied by the supper. Two long tables were elegantly arranged. Everything to be seen on the supper table of a party given in the grandest mansion in the city was there, even to the very silver dishes, that figure night after night at the entertainments of our secretaries and ministers. M. Gutier (the confectioner) and his assistants presided the entire evening as carefully as if serving the President. There was no dancing or music, because the club were all members of the church; only conversation and feasting, to while away the time. The entire expense was borne by ten of the gentlemen. Now, what a country this is, this land of slavery, where such enjoyments for the colored race are sanctioned by the whites—this much decried spot! whereas, at the North, was ever such a party heard of? Are there any ten servants there, (for these men are themselves servants, and wait on those who pay them wages,) who could afford to give such a feast to their friends, or who know how to do it, in such style and with so much propriety? No; they can scarcely get bread to eat by the sweat of their brow, in those lands of freedom where they pine and die, utterly neglected by the sympathizing abolitionists, who spill oceans of ink, and shed crocodile tears, only, in their service, but let them starve at their doors meantime."

GALLERY OF INDUSTRY AND ENTERPRISE.

HENRY D. BACON, OF ST. LOUIS.

WITH A PORTRAIT.

No. 18.

MR. BACON, though scarcely yet thirty-five years of age, has achieved for himself, by his resolute purpose, indomitable energy, quick and accurate judgment, and sound intelligence, a reputation in commercial circles scarcely second to that of any of the veterans who are looked up to in the western valley as the Nestors and Ulysses of the mercantile profession.

A son of Massachusetts, like the most of his countrymen, he was not unwilling to leave, at an early age, its granite hills and ice lakes, which have a great deal more of prose than poetry about them, despite of Longfellow and Emerson, and seek an abode and fortune in the rich and thriving regions of the West, where man and nature meet on more equal terms, and where the "fickle goddess" pays penance for coquetries that are past.

Arriving at St. Louis in 1837, Mr. Bacon opened a business corresponding with his means, in which he had the ordinary share of profits and losses, the one alternating with the other, or balancing or excelling in that sort of very exciting, but not always very pleasant experience of mercantile life. It is sufficient that in this sphere he maintained credit and character, and if we must say it, for the words are talismanic, opening all hearts, as indicating the highest possible success, *made money*.

In 1845 he married the daughter of D. Page, Esq., a veteran and wealthy citizen of St. Louis, prominent in business; and being admitted into the house, soon succeeded to almost the entire management of its very extended affairs.

In 1848, at his instance, the present widely known and distinguished banking-house of Page & Bacon was established at St. Louis; and founded as it was upon the immense private resources of its head, and the acknowledged zeal, energy, integrity and experience of Mr. Bacon, it soon attained public confidence, which it has preserved unshaken, whilst conducting an enormous share of the monetary matters of St. Louis. No public or private banking-house maintains higher rank.

In 1850, a branch of the banking-house was opened in California, and the business of the two establishments exceeds in extent $35,000,000 per annum.

In all the extended and important concerns of this establishment, Mr. Bacon has proved himself fully competent; and we question if there is, in the whole western valley, an individual who could, with greater skill, administer and control them. This is high reputation for so young a man, but it is well established.

As a citizen, Mr. Bacon has never been wanting in public spirit, or a disposition to advance the common weal. On several occasions he has been elected a member of the City Council, in which body his advocacy of wise and liberal measures was always to be counted upon and secured. No benevolent and generous cause ever found him dead to its claims; but, on the contrary, there are hundreds who are the living witnesses of his disinterested and kindly charities. It is thus, in the march to fortune, he finds the ready welcome of all, giving him a hearty God speed.

The young men of St. Louis have ever found in him a spirit akin, in many respects, to their own, and sympathizing in their pursuits, their hopes, their pleasures, and their fortunes. A kind adviser, a ready friend, administering services when such services tell with most effect, and far beyond their cost, Mr. Bacon has attained an enviable reputation among this class. But the other day he came forward most liberally to aid in the proposed structure of a splendid Mercantile Society Hall. We extract from the minutes of the Association an acknowledgment of this service, as follows:

"We have now the pleasure of announcing an instance of princely liberality on the part of an eminent banker of this city, of which it is hard to say whether it confers greater honor upon the Mercantile Library Association, for whose benefit it is intended, or upon the gentleman whose powerful assistance it has so opportunely received. H. D. Bacon, Esq., has authorized us to state, that he will take stock in our company to the amount of $20,000, if the remainder of the necessary sum is obtained. That unprovided balance is $30,000. Incited by this signal example of public spirit and benevolence, there can no longer remain a doubt that our citizens will at once subscribe the balance of the untaken stock. When informed of the precarious situation of the enterprise, Mr. Bacon promptly came to the rescue, and is therefore justly entitled to the enviable distinction of having ensured its triumphant success. Not less certainly has he, at one stride, taken the foremost rank among the friends and benefactors of the Mercantile Library Association."

The personal qualities of Mr. Bacon are eminently fitted to conciliate friendship, and enlarge the circle of his personal friends; and whether transacting the business of his banking-house, or extending the hospitalities of his elegant mansion, his gentlemanly courtesy, amenity of manners, frankness and ease, are felt and acknowledged.

May his future career advance even brighter than the past, and may a good old age, with its honors and its rewards, crown the efforts of a well-spent and useful life.

EDITORIAL AND LITERARY DEPARTMENT.

1.—*Hernando de Soto.*—The following is from the Prairie Star, published at Marksville, Avoyelles parish:

Since we have been in this place we have made a visit to Old River, situated about one mile back of Marksville. Much has been said about the curious and apparently military works, the sign of which seems designed to remain as long as the world stands. We will first attempt a description, before we presume an opinion.

The banks of what doubtless was once Red River, is about seventeen feet higher than the highest water marks ever known by the oldest inhabitants. Immediately upon the bank is situated a large mound, about twenty feet high, forming a level of about an acre on the top; from this, or rather from the base of it, commences apparently a breastwork, of one mile in extent, forming a complete semi-circle, uniformly eight feet in height, with a complete circumvallation the whole extent, with a slight interruption, however, of what appears to have been planted a battery for the use of the cannon.

Immediately in the rear of this battery is situated a small mound, forty feet high, as though it was intended as a kind of look-out. Back of this, still, is another, built in the form of the Pyramid of Cholula, a double mound, one upon the other, diminishing in size to the top. Some years since the Hon. P. Soule and Judge Preston visited these ruins, and the opinion of the former was that they presented the appearance of European works. If we bear in mind the fact that this is the first high land not subject to overflow, after leaving the mouth of Red River, we are irresistibly led to the conclusion that it formed the camping-ground of *Hernando de Soto*; still the timber in *some places* appears to be quite ancient—*some measuring* six feet in diameter.

2.—STATISTICS OF THE TUSCALOOSA MANUFACTURING CO'S MILLS.

SCOTTSVILLE, *Ala., April* 2, 1852.

To J. D. B. DE BOW, ESQ.:

1 brick cotton mill, 45 by 90 feet, 3 stories, with basement and garret, with a wing attached, 33 by 43 feet, 4 stories.

1 willow; 2 lapping machines; 30 cotton cards, 30 inches; 3 drawing frames; 4 speeders; 12 spinning frames,

1536 spindles.
1 pair of hand mules, 480 "
1 twine machine, 20 "
2036
120 wool mule below.

4 reels; 3 dressing frames; 1 spooling machine; 2 warpers; 1 pair of wool cards, for rolls, will card 160 or 170 lbs. per day; 1 set of do. for manufacturing wool; 1 wool mule, 120 spindles; 45 looms, for 4-4 goods, about 30 running.

We employ about 90 operatives.

We manufacture daily about 1500 yards Osnaburgs = per annum, 450,000 yards, 31 inches wide, weighing 8 ozs. per yard; 650 to 700 yds. cotton yarn = an., 100,000 lbs.; 11 to 1200 lbs. cotton = 350 to 360,000 lbs. = 700 bales. About 12,000 yards heavy linseys yearly; also, a quantity of twine and sewing cotton. We have a grist and saw mill, a church 35 by 50 feet. The water wheel is 13 feet diameter, and 8 feet long overshot. Our head and fall of water 18 feet, with an abundant supply at all times, and not subject to inundation. Our profits for the last two years were quite light, but no loss. We generally declare 10 p. ct., dividend; one year, 15 p. ct. A population of about 200. The Company own all the property.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

1.—*Arctic Searching Expedition:* a Journal of a Boat-voyage through Rupert's Land and the Arctic Sea, in search of the discovery ships under command of Sir John Franklin. With an Appendix on the Physical Geography of North America. By Sir John Richardson, C. B., F. R. S., Inspector of Naval Hospitals and Fleets, etc. New-York: Harper & Brothers, 1852. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans.

We are preparing an elaborate review of this most interesting work, which will appear in our next number.

2.—*Literary World.* New-York—$3 per annum: E. A. & G. Duyckinck.

This popular journal, the first and only one of its kind successfully established in the United States, is especially devoted to the interests of the reading public.

Its leaders embrace all subjects of general interest, handled in an independent style.

Its tales and sketches are by the best writers of our own country, or selected from choice foreign sources not generally accessible.

Its chronicle of passing events is full and minute on all topics likely to interest the intelligent, embracing the latest information on all subjects of literature, science, art, music, drama, popular amusement, and social chit-chat.

Its literary notices aim at combining entertainment and piquancy, with the fullest and fairest exposition of *every new book of value published.*

The proceedings of the various societies for discovery or research throughout the country are regularly reported in its columns.

It contains every week lists of all books published in this country, and a descriptive catalogue of valuable works published abroad and not reprinted here. This information cannot be obtained in any other single publication, and its value to all readers need not be dwelt upon.

Its constant contributors are some of the most eminent authors of the country.

It is the aim of its conductors to issue a weekly journal inferior to none in America in enlightened entertainment and efficiency.

3.—*The Life and Works of Robert Burns,* edited by Robert Chambers, in 4 volumes. New-York: Harper & Brothers. J. C. Morgan, New-Orleans, 1852.

We have received vol. I., which is neatly issued, and contains the Life of the poet, together with his Correspondence and Poems, written up to 1786. In the appendix there are several interesting papers, among others, an account of his ancestry, and the books read by him in early life. As the other volumes appear we shall give them a notice which will be worthy of the great merits of the Scottish bard. Mr. Chambers' edition of this work must meet with universal favor.

4.—*Rational Religion and Morals;* presenting an Analysis of the Functions of the Mind under the operations and directions of Reason, etc., etc. By Thomas J. Vaiden, M. D., of St. Louis, Mo.

We are indebted to J. B. Steel for this ponderous volume of one thousand pages of small type! It embraces a systematic attack upon revelation, the Bible, etc., and indeed upon all religious creeds and beliefs except that which is founded upon Reason, as the author expresses it. There is evidently a screw loose somewhere in the mind of this voluminous writer; but it may confidently be affirmed of his book, whatever its infidel *intentions,* it is entirely incapable of doing any harm! If any one succeeds in reading a whole page of it through, his success will be greater than ours, after several attempts. Such a waste of labor and ink, and good paper, is without a parallel. "In short, we can make neither head nor tail of it," and have no idea that any one else will be more fortunate. The author dedicates it "to the citizens of the world—those of the Billion, inspired by Reason and Truth," etc., and we leave it in their hands for what they can make of it.

5.—*Alabama Historical Society.*—We have received the first number of the Transactions of this association, which contains the proceedings of the first meeting; the Report of Executive Committee; the Address of the President; Report of Committee on the Statistics of Tuscaloosa; Col. Croom's Essay on the Cotton Plant. The officers of the society are—

Hon. Alex. Bowie, *President.*
Col. A. J. Pickett, } *Vice Pres't.*
Gen. E. D. King, }
Hon. W. Moody, *Treasurer.*
J. H. Foster, *Secretary.*

6—*Report of the Secretary of War:* Communicating Reports of Col. Long and Mr. Ellet, relating to the inundations of the Mississippi River. This is an interesting work, with maps, and will be noticed by us more fully hereafter, though Mr. Ellet's report has been already largely reviewed in our pages by our able friend, Albert Stein, of Mobile.

7.—*Medical Department of the University of Nashville.*—We call attention to the advertisement of this institution in another place. The total number of students in 1851, '52, is 121.

8.—*Riego; or, the Spanish Martyr.* A Tragedy in five acts. Published by P. D. Bernard, Richmond, Va. We apologize to the author, who was good enough to send us a copy, for not having noticed it before. We have still to postpone the duty to another number of the Review.

9.—*School for Husbands.* A Novel. By Lady Bulwer Lytton. Three volumes in one. Carey & Hart, 1852.

We thank J. B. Steel, New-Orleans, for a copy of this ingenious, but, as usual, rather spiteful novel of Lady Bulwer. She has a long preface, filled up with personal matters, in which the public are ever disposed to take an interest, where the quarrels of high life are concerned.

10.—*Report of the Charity Hospital of New-Orleans.*—This able document is the production of Dr. E. D. Fenner. We extract from it some statistics, showing the enormous operations of the Institution.

It will appear from the accompanying document, that, in the year 1850,

The number of patients admitted was	18,476
Do. do. discharged,	15,989
Do. do. died	1,884
The cost of maintenance of the Hospital for the year 1850 was	$69,783 87
Whilst the payment and expenditure amounted to	89,427 56
The gross income for this year, including the state appropriation, was	84,711 42
The debts due by the Hospital, 31st December, 1850	22,380 82
The debts due to the Hospital	14,570 14
Number of patients from foreign countries	16,598
Do. do. United States.	1,774
Do. do. unknown	104
Together	18,476
Of which number there were from the State of Louisiana	264

For the year 1851—

Number of patients admitted	18,420
Do. do. discharged.	16,777
Do. do. died	1,871
The cost of maintenance was	$67,074 48
Payments and expenditures during the year	66,575 70
The gross income for the year, including the state appropriation, was	66,504 91
Debts due by the Hospital	23,853 45
Debts due to the Hospital	16,169 28

Of this last amount, nearly three-fourths are considered unavailable, leaving the indebtedness of the Hospital about $20,000 at this time.

The number of patients from foreign countries	16,503
Do. do. United States.	1,726
Do. do. unknown	291
Together	18,420
Of which number there were from Louisiana only	241

11.—*The Isthmus of Tehuantepec.* Being the results of a Survey for a Rail-Road to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, made by the Scientific Commission under the direction of Major J. G. Barnard, U. S. Engineers. With a Resume of the Geology, Local Topography, Climate, Productive Industry, Fauna and Flora, of that region. Illustrated with numerous maps and engravings. Arranged and prepared for the Company, by J. J. Williams, Assistant Engineer. New-York: D. Appleton & Co.

This work, in two handsome volumes, the

latter containing maps, &c. may be had at the bookstores, and is one of the most interesting productions of the day. When a little more at leisure, we design to make them the basis of an article.

12.—*Randolph-Macon Magazine*, published by the students of that college in Virginia. A neat monthly periodical, with many interesting essays and sketches. It has reached the second number of the second volume. We like to see such efforts in all of the literary institutions of the South.

13.—*Southern Literary Messenger* for March, 1852. Richmond, Va.: R. Thompson. $5 per annum. Contents—Voyage to China; The Fall of Bexar; Short Sermons; History of Richmond; Shadows of the Mountains' Pine; Poetry of Judge Henry Jackson; Queen Victoria; original poems, Ponce de Leon's Dream; The Madonna, Della Guardia; Sonnet; Lola Montes Unseen, &c.

14.—*Banker's Magazine, Boston*: J. Smith Homans. Five dollars per annum. Contents—Prize Essay on Banking; History of Banking; Natural Formation of Gold; Gold of California; Catalogue of rare and useful books on Banking; Bank statistics of the different states, etc. etc.

15.—*Astronomical Observations*, made under the direction of Lieut. M. F. Maury, at the National Observatory, Washington. Vol. II.

We are indebted for a copy of this large quarto volume to the courtesy of the author, and did time admit, should be pleased to open to our readers much of the valuable matter it embodies. Independently of the mere tables, which involve a prodigious amount of labor, there are over a hundred pages upon the subject of the Electro-Chronograph, the Planet Neptune, and Wind and Current Charts. These are matters of great interest and importance to navigators, as well as to men of science. No man in the United States is doing more for the sea [illegible]terests than Lieut. Maury, and the South [illegible]s no son more ardently devoted to her advancement, as the pages of our own Review have shown.

16.—*The Head of the Family*—a novel, by the author of "Olive," and "The Ogilvies." This is number 167 of Harpers' admirable library of select novels, which is a sufficient assurance of its excellence and readable qualities. It is dedicated to a lady—Elizabeth Barrett Browning—and is written in the usual simple, clear and vigorous style of its author.

17.—*Ravenscliffe*—a novel. by Mrs. Marsh, the well-known author of "Two Old Men's Tales," "Mordaunt Hall," &c. &c. This is a novel of high merit, and well deserving of the place it occupies in Harpers' Select Library. It is now too late to praise it, as it is well known. Like all of Harpers' select novels, it is published unabridged and unaltered.

18.—*Darien, or the Merchant Prince*: An Historical Romance, by Elliot Warburton, author of "The Crescent and the Cross," "Prince Rupert and the Cavaliers," "Reginald Hastings," &c. New-York: Harpers. Morgan: New-Orleans.

19.—*American Statistical Society*.—We have received the constitution, etc. of this important association, which has lately been formed in New-York, and of which Henry Grinnell is President, and Charles A. Dana, and S. Dewitt Bloodgood, Secretaries. An initiation fee of $10, and $5 per annum, will constitute a member. There are anniversary, special and ordinary meetings—the latter taking place regularly once a quarter. A library is to be collected, and regular publications made. We give the right hand of fellowship to this movement, in whose success are our best wishes.

EDITORIAL NOTE.

The continued indisposition of the Editor for several weeks, will be an apology for the deficiency of editorial matter in the present number. He has been compelled to lay over for another number several papers upon subjects of present interest and importance, which he much regrets. In the next number an effort will be made to make amends for past delinquencies, and to bring up all subjects to date.

THE LATE SOUTHWESTERN RAIL-ROAD CONVENTION.

The proceedings of this important body have been reprinted from the Review, in pamphlet form, and are ready for *free* distribution. Persons desiring copies will give notice to the office of the Review, *post-paid*.

DEAN COTTON SEED.

We have on hand a small parcel of this cotton seed, which was noticed in our March number, and attracted considerable attention. Any of our friends may have them by making the request. We understand from Mr. Dean that he will be able to supply these seeds in large quantities, for the next crop. The fact will be noticed, in due season, in the Review.

WILKINS'

Patent Pneumatic Flue Kettle.

The advantages of this arrangement over common kettles, are as follows:

It makes double the quantity of (more uniform) sugar in the same time. It requires but half the fuel, and one-third the number of hands for its management. It is more simple, and costs less. It boils at a much lower temperature, and is well adapted for making molasses into sugar.

It is erected as an evaporating, concentrating, and finishing pan, in connection with Wilkins,' or any other clarifiers. The one on the estate of W. M. Lambeth, Esq., is capable of making 6,000 lbs. of sugar at a strike.

See the March number of De Bow's Review, and for other particulars address W. F. Wilkins, Engineer, Opelousas; or Simon Richard, Opelousas, who manufactures the Pneumatical part of the Kettle; or Messrs. Holtsbury & Fowler, Boiler makers, Barrone-street, New-Orleans, who construct the Kettles.

A. KENDALL & CO.,

72 Magazine-street, New-Orleans.

The attention of the reader is called to some recent frauds perpetrated on parties who have mistakingly purchased, as the genuine article, imitations of the "Electrical Febrifuge," prepared by A. Kendall & Co., 72 Magazine-street, New-Orleans. Now, this valuable medicine, when purchased properly, has been found, it is said, a most valuable remedy in cases of bilious fever—there is quite a mass of testimony to that effect in letters received, apparently without solicitation, from various planters of the highest respectability. Many of these gentlemen state, that the fever patients were cured in from two to eight hours.

LATE PUBLICATIONS.

J. C. Morgan's Literary Depot, Exchange Place, adjoining the Post-Office, New-Orleans.

The Latest Publications Received.

Lectures on the History of France. By Sir James Stephen. 1 vol. 8vo.

Wesley and Methodism. By Isaac Taylor. 1 vol. 12mo.

Practical Treatise on Use of the Microscope. 1 vol. 8vo.

Illustrated Manual of the Operative Surgery and Surgical Anatomy.

Calhoun's Works—A Disquisition on Government and a Discourse on the Constitution of the United States. By John C. Calhoun. Vol. 1.

Sorcery and Magic. By Thomas Wright.

Layard's Nineveh, cheap edition. 1 vol. 12mo.

Sweet on Diseases of the Chest. 1 vol. 8vo.

Characters in the Gospels, Illustrating phases of character at the present day. By Rev. E. H. Chapin. 1 vol. 12mo.

The New French Manual—intended as a guide to the Tourist, and a class-book for the Student. By Surenne.

Home and Social Philosophy. By Charles Dickens.

Norton's Literary Almanac for 1852.

The Corner Stone. By Jacob Abbott, forming vol. 2 of Abbott's Young Christian Series.

Whimsicalities. By Thomas Hood. 1 vol. 12mo.

Quakerism, or the Story of my Life. By a Lady who for forty years was a member of the Society of Friends.

Templeton's Engineers', Millwrights' and Mechanics' Pocket Companion. By Julius W. Adams, Engineer.

Clover Nook; or Recollections of our Neighborhood in the West. By Alice Carey.

Appleton's Mechanics' Magazine and Engineers' Journal for 1851. Bound in 1 vol.

Treatises on Architecture, Building, Masonry, Joinery, and Carpentry. By Wm. Hosking.

Byrne's Practical Metal Worker's Assistant.

Scott's Practical Cotton Spinner.

Elwood's Grain Tables.

NOVELS AND MAGAZINES.

Florence Sacville. By Mrs. Burbury.

Sketches in France. By Alexandre Dumas.

Yankee Yarns and Yankee Letters. By Judge Halliburton.

Kenneth, a Romance of the Highlands. By G. W. M. Reynolds. Complete in 2 vols.

Harper's Magazine for March and April.

International	do.	do.
Eclectic	do.	do.
Knickerbocker	do.	do.
Hunt's Merchants	do.	do.
Blackwood's	do.	Feb. and March
Graham's	do.	March and April.
Sartain's	do.	do.
Godey's Lady's Book		do.

Appleton's Mechanics Magazine for March.

London Lancet	do.
London Art Journal	do.

Silliman's Journal of Science and Art for March.

London Quarterly. North British, Westminster and Edinburg Reviews.

UNIVERSITY OF NASHVILLE.

Medical Department.

The Second Annual Course of Lectures in this department will commence on the first Monday of November next, and continue till the first of the ensuing March.

Paul F. Eve, M. D., Principles and Practice of Surgery.
John M. Watson, M. D., Obstetrics and the Diseases of Women and Children.
A. H. Buchanan, M. D., Surgical and Pathological Anatomy and Physiology.
W. K. Bowling, M. D., Institutes and Practice of Medicine.
C. K. Winston, M. D., Materia Medica and Medical Jurisprudence.
Robert M. Porter, M. D., General and Special Anatomy.
J. Berrien Lindsley, M. D., Chemistry and Pharmacy.
William T. Briggs, M. D., Demonstrator of Anatomy.

The Anatomical rooms will be opened for students on the first Monday of October.

A full *Preliminary Course* of Lectures will be given by the Professors, commencing also on the first Monday of October.

Fee of each Professor $15; Matriculation ticket $5; Dissecting ticket $10; Graduation fee $25.

Good board can be obtained in the city at from $2 50 to $3 per week. Further information may be obtained by addressing the Dean.

J. B. LINDSLEY, M. D., *Dean.*

March, 1852.

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